AN EXPLICIT AWARENESS-RAISING APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF SOCIOPRAGMATIC VARIATION IN EARLY FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

by

Eleonore Lemmerich

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of Utah
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Linguistics

The University of Utah

December 2010

The University of Utah Graduate School

STATEMENT OF DISSERTATION APPROVAL

The dissertation of **Eleonore Lemmerich**

has been approved by the following supervisory committee members:

Johanna Watzinger-Tharp	, Chair	**4/30/2010** Date Approved
MaryAnn Christison	, Member	**4/30/2010** Date Approved
Rachel Hayes-Harb	, Member	**4/30/2010** Date Approved
Stacey Katz	, Member	**4/30/2010** Date Approved
Adrian Palmer	, Member	**4/30/2010** Date Approved

and by **Edward Rubin**, Chair of

the Department of **Linguistics**

and by Charles A. Wight, Dean of The Graduate School.

ABSTRACT

In recent years, researchers in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have become increasingly interested in the implications of sociolinguistic research for L2 learning. Among the many questions that arise are whether the development of sociolinguistic competence should be an instructional goal as early as the beginning level, and what types of learning opportunities are most beneficial for its development. Issues regarding learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatic competence have repeatedly been addressed in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP), and today, a considerable body of classroom-based ILP research exists. However, there is still a lack of studies that specifically investigate the teachability of sociolinguistic competence, one aspect of pragmatic competence, in the beginning-level foreign language classroom.

This study examined the effects of a web-based pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach on learners' development of sociopragmatic competence. The research focus was on the development of receptive skills and metapragmatic knowledge as demonstrated by the learners' ability to recognize and reflect on contextually appropriate language. The instructional target was forms of address in German, including address pronouns, greetings, and pronominal forms. The research design was based on a mixed-method design, and research data were elicited by means of discourse completion tasks and retrospective comment tasks. The participants were 56 learners of German, who at the time of the intervention were enrolled in several sections of a second-semester German course at a major university in the Northwest of the United States. The results showed a significant increase in the experimental group learners' ability to employ the metapragmatic information that they had received through instruction, and a clear approximation to the native speaker norm. The research findings indicate that L2 learners benefit from the integration of sociolinguistic variation into the beginning-level curriculum and suggest which instructional techniques are most effective. The study has important implications for the field of Second Language Teacher Education, particularly with regard to curriculum design and material development. It informs the discussion of the pedagogical norm and provides an example of how data obtained from L1 sociolinguistic research can constitute a relevant source for L2 teaching material development.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Appendices

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Writing this dissertation would not have been possible without the support of my committee members, family, and friends. First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my dissertation chair, Johanna Watzinger-Tharp, for her inspiration during my Ph.D. studies and her constant support during the writing process, especially for her detailed feedback on the individual chapters, her step-by-step guidance, and her straightforward approach to mentoring. I would also like to thank my committee members, Mary-Ann Christison, Rachel Hayes-Harb, Stacey Katz, and Adrian Palmer, for their helpful comments and editorial suggestions, and for providing feedback on my topic from a variety of perspectives. Special thanks go to Rachel Hayes-Harb for her assistance with the statistical data analysis.

I would also like to express my thankfulness to Nikolaus Euba and his graduate teaching assistants for letting me conduct my pedagocial intervention in their German classes, to the Goethe-Institute San Francisco, and to all the numerous individuals who volunteered to participate in the role-plays and data collection.

I owe my deepest gratitude to my husband David, who stood by my side throughout the years, for his emotional and professional support, and for taking such excellent care of our daughter Lucie when I was writing. Thank you, Lucie, for always reminding me of a very different world outside academia, Constanze and Barbara for your childcare assistance, and all my family members and friends for believing in me.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

In recent decades, applied linguists have become increasingly interested in sociolinguistic issues related to L2 learning. Among the topics under discussion are the implications of sociolinguistic research for L2 teaching (for a compilation of papers, see McKay & Hornberger, 2001). A central question that arises in a sociolinguistically informed approach to L2 teaching is how language instructors should cope with sociolinguistic variation in the *foreign* language classroom, a context in which the learners have little or no contact with native speakers, and are typically exposed to only a narrow set of social, geographical, and stylistic variation.

In the recent history of foreign language instruction, the issue of sociolinguistic variation was largely ignored. Traditionally, foreign language instruction was based on standard language (Kramsch, 2002). As a result, learners were introduced to an idealized type of language that displayed invariant linguistic usage, "i.e. use [of] only one linguistic element to convey a given notion" (Mougeon & Rehner, 2001, p. 398), and largely differed from how the language was actually used. However, with the shift from grammar-based to communicative approaches, views towards teaching language variation have somewhat changed. There is now a growing consensus among researchers and language teaching professionals that the study of sociolinguistic variation should be an integral part of the foreign language curriculum (for a compilation of papers, see Blyth, 2003; Gass, Bardovi-Harlig, Magnan, & Walz, 2002), and that learners should be exposed to different varieties[1]. As Auger (2003) states:

> (…) many [pedagogues] now explicitly acknowledge that multiple norms exist and that students should be equipped to use their target language in a variety of different settings. Thus, in addition to teaching students the forms of standard Spanish, or standard French, for example, many pedagogues expand the linguistic horizons of their students by introducing them to a larger variety of social, geographical, and stylistic options than was the case previously. (p. 79)

Despite this general agreement, however, there is still a lack of consensus regarding which aspects of variation to teach, as well as how and when to teach them. Among the many questions that arise are whether the development of sociolinguistic competence should be an instructional goal as early as the beginning level or only for more advanced learners, and the degree to which sociolinguistic competence is teachable and learnable in a foreign language classroom (Blyth, 2003). Sociolinguistic competence is defined as "the ability to recognize and produce contextually appropriate language, including sensitivity to differences in varieties and registers" (Lyster, 1994, p. 266).

Many researchers indeed advocate the development of sociolinguistic competence as an instructional goal in early language instruction (Barbour, 2004; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Neuland, 2006), but they also point out that the goal for learners should be eventual, rather than immediate mastery, and that complex variation patterns cannot be mastered equally in all skill areas (Neuland, 2006). Neuland proposes that when dealing with complex variation patterns, the focus of language instruction should at first be on the development of receptive skills, metalinguistic knowledge, and the ability to reflect about language, and that a shift to the development of productive skills should take place at a later point. She furthermore argues that the overall goal of language

[1] Barbour and Stevenson (1990) define 'variety' as "any form of a language that can, at least for the purpose of analysis, be distinguished from others on a social, regional, or situational basis" (p. 280).

instruction (e.g., whether students are fulfilling a language requirement, majoring in the language, or training to become a translator or interpreter) will ultimately determine whether mastery of complex variation patterns should be required in all skill areas.

The second question raised above concerns the teachability of sociolinguistic competence in the foreign language classroom. According to Kasper (1997), there is a simple answer to this question as formulated:

> Competence, whether linguistic or pragmatic,[2] is not teachable. Competence is a type of knowledge learners posses, develop, use or lose. The challenge for foreign language teaching is whether we can arrange learning opportunities in such a way that they benefit the development of pragmatic competence in L2. (p. 1)

In other words, the central question then should not be whether sociolinguistic competence is teachable, but rather what types of learning opportunities are most beneficial for the development of sociolinguistic competence. This issue has repeatedly been investigated in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP). A review of relevant research demonstrates that 'explicit' types of instruction are more effective than 'implicit' ones (Rose, 2005; Rose & Kasper, 2001) for a detailed review of relevant studies see Section 2.6.5). 'Explicit instruction' is defined as entailing either some kind of rule explanation (deduction) or directing the learners' attention to particular forms so that they may discover the rules for themselves (induction). In contrast, in 'implicit instruction,' the focus is on meaning rather than on form, where exposure to rich input and meaningful use of the L2 is believed to result in incidental L2 acquisition (DeKeyser, 1995).

[2] Kasper uses the term 'pragmatic competence' rather than 'sociolinguistic competence.' It serves as an umbrella term and subsumes both functional and sociolinguistic knowledge. Following Bachman & Palmer (1996), pragmatic competence is defined as "how utterances and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting" (p. 67). A detailed discussion of the relevant terminology is provided in Chapter 2.

1.2 Rationale for Present Study

As the above discussion has shown, there is now a growing consensus among applied linguists and language educators that sociolinguistic competence should be an instructional goal in the foreign language curriculum. The small body of classroom-based ILP research has provided some answers as to what type of instruction is most beneficial for pragmatics learning. However, there is still a lack of research that specifically investigates the teachability of sociolinguistic competence, one aspect of pragmatic competence, in the beginning-level foreign language classroom. So far, interventionist studies in the field of ILP have mostly been conducted with learners at the intermediate and advanced proficiency levels, with the exception of a few studies (e.g., Wildner-Bassett, 1994 and Tayetama, Kasper, Mui, Tay, & Thananart, 1997). The findings of these studies demonstrate that beginning learners are indeed capable of learning a certain aspect of L2 pragmatics- in these two cases, pragmatic routines. But more studies are needed in order to gain better insight into what particular pragmatic aspects are teachable, and whether and to what degree research outcomes can be generalized across a variety of target languages. In addition, studies that focus on aspects other than production are needed. Up to this point, most studies have concentrated on the production of the target features, as well as how they are used in interaction (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

It is the goal of the present study to expand what is known so far about the teachability of L2 pragmatics to beginning-level learners. The study consists of a pedagogical intervention targeted at learners of German as a foreign language in a second-semester university class. Instruction follows an explicit, awareness-raising approach as suggested by Ishihara (2007) with the intention "to instill in learners a sense of appropriate language *use* by providing a series of awareness-raising tasks" (p. 21). Such tasks consist of directing the learners' attention to particular forms in the input, and to make them aware of "how exactly various contextual factors are evaluated in the L2 culture and how they affect L2 forms" (p. 22). The theoretical underpinning of an awareness-raising approach is Schmidt's (1990, 1990, 2001) 'noticing hypothesis' which states that in order for input (what the learner is exposed to) to become intake (what the learner notices in the input), learners have to be aware of or notice particular features in the input such as "linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 35; for a detailed discussion, see Section 2.6.4).

The instructional target of the pedagogical intervention is German forms of address in short, dyadic, spoken, face-to-face conversations that take place in the university setting. The address forms that are relevant in this context are the following: the second person singular personal pronouns *du* and *Sie* ("you") including all case variations, the second person singular possessive pronouns *dein* and *Ihr* ("your") including all case variations, the reflexive pronouns *dich* and *sich* (no equivalent) including all case variations, the nominal forms personal names, respectful names, titles, and roles and functions as well as greeting formulas. This selection was based on perceived need (what is considered the most relevant for beginning-level learners at the college level), but also on feasibility (how much can be covered for the purpose of the present research study). The choice of German as the target language was motivated by Kasper and Rose's (2002) call for interventional studies that involved languages other than English, particularly languages that are learned in a foreign language context, but also by my research interest in the learning and teaching of German as a foreign language.

Address forms in German were furthermore chosen because of learner difficulties that have been identified in observational ILP research studies (Belz, 2002, 2007). Address usage is an instance of sociolinguistic variation that appears particularly challenging to L2 learners, but is at the same time crucial for successful communication. Belz (2007) describes the appropriate use of address forms in German as “essential for establishing and maintaining good social relations, yet the research has shown that even NSs have difficulty in deciding which pronouns to use based on the complexity and ambiguity of the system” (p. 54).

Despite the findings from empirical studies in L1 German that address usage is characterized by substantial variation (Clyne, Kretzenbacher, Norrby, & Schüpbach, 2006), it is often portrayed as a simple, straightforward concept in L2 teaching materials. Results from textbook review studies suggest that foreign language learners are introduced to only a subset of address forms and much less variety than occurs in native speech (Miodek, 1996; Saccia, 2006). Even though a careful selection from the complex system of address forms is a necessary step in L2 materials development, the main argument made in the present paper is that oversimplification can prevent learners from developing sensitivity towards sociolinguistic variation. Sociolinguistic sensitivity, according to Watzinger-Tharp (2008)[3] refers to “the cognitive understanding of the relationship between extralinguistic factors (e.g., setting, age, gender) and variant linguistic features” and constitutes “an initial and fundamental phase of the development of sociolinguistic competence” (also see Watzinger-Tharp, 2006, p. 51). In other words, in order to facilitate the development of sociolinguistic competence, learners must first be

[3] Personal communication with Johanna Watzinger-Tharp on Oct. 13, 2008.

"sensitized" to sociolinguistic variation in naturally occurring discourse. In order to become more sensitized, students must be made aware of variation patterns, which, as the research indicates, can best be achieved by means of explicit instruction.

The present research study follows Neuland's (2006) proposal to focus first on learners' development of receptive skills and metalinguistic knowledge before shifting to issues of production (this aspect could be considered in a follow-up investigation). More specifically, it investigates German as a foreign language learners' perception of the appropriateness of the use of address forms in native speaker interactions; it furthermore examines whether there are significant changes in the development of learners' sensitivity towards sociolinguistic variation throughout the course of the pedagogical intervention.

To summarize, the present study makes a number of valuable contributions. First, it adds to the discussion of the teachability of pragmatic forms and functions, and it expands upon what is known so far about the teaching of sociolinguistic variation to beginning-level learners. Furthermore, it sheds light on the question of whether learners of a foreign language who have no or limited contact with native speakers are able to develop sociolinguistic competence or whether this aspect of a L2 can be acquired only through interaction with native speakers in real-world contexts. More generally, it contributes to the discussion of the role of instruction in second language acquisition, how effective instruction is, and what type of instruction is most beneficial. The study furthermore has important implications for the field of Second Language Teacher Education, particularly with regard to curriculum design and material development. It informs the discussion of the pedagogical norm (whether variable forms should be taught and if so, to what extent and in what way) and provides an example of how data obtained from L1 sociolinguistic research can constitute a relevant source for L2 teaching material development. On a more theoretical level, the study stresses the importance of a sociolinguistically-informed approach to L2 teaching, which considers linguistic variation as it appears in naturally occurring discourse an essential component of the L2 curriculum.

1.3 Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 states the central problem, provides a rationale for choosing the targeted pragmatic feature and instructional approach, and justifies the significance of the present dissertation to the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics.

Chapter 2 reviews and evaluates relevant Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) research and theoretical frameworks. It starts out by discussing a sociolinguistic approach to the study of language, including the notion of variation as a central element in the field of Sociolinguistics. It then outlines important theoretical models of language knowledge, discusses the target pragmatic feature, forms of address in German, and finally provides an overview over the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics, introduces relevant SLA theories, and critically examines previously conducted research relevant to L2 pragmatic development.

Chapter 3 introduces the research methodology, research design, and the pedagogical intervention. It provides a rationale for choosing the main methodologies used in the study (mixed method), outlines the research design, including the methods used for data collection and data analysis; it furthermore describes the pedagogical intervention and justifies why the particular instructional approach was chosen.

Chapter 4 presents the empirical findings for each test section.

Finally, Chapter 5 provides a summary and interpretation of the main findings, evaluates the methodology, and addresses research limitations and future implications for the fields of L2 Pedagogy and L2 Teacher Education.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In the present research project, the study of language is approached from a sociolinguistic perspective. It is theoretically grounded in the model of communicative competence and the areas of Pragmatics, Second Language Acquisition Theory (SLA), and more specifically, Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP). The following chapter introduces each of these areas along with the working terms and definitions that will be used throughout the study. It will furthermore situate the study in the field of ILP, discuss the research that has already been conducted and show how previous research has led to the present research question.

2.2 The Sociolinguistics of Language and Language Learning

2.2.1 Sociolinguistic Approaches to the Study of Language

Sociolinguistic approaches to the study of language are concerned with "real-life" language issues in social context (Paulston & Tucker, 2003). The study of the inter-relationship between language and society falls into two main types, the analysis of large-scale social patterning of variation and change on the one hand, and the investigation of small-scale speech situations on the other (Downes, 1998).

The first type is sometimes referred to as 'sociolinguistics proper' and is largely associated with quantitative variation studies such as those conducted by Labov. Also referred to as ‘correlational sociolinguistics’ or ‘variationist linguistics,’ this approach seeks to investigate how social variables, such as socioeconomic class, gender, and age are systematically interrelated with linguistic variables.

The second type of analysis looks at the social meanings of language within its smaller situational context. One instance of this type of analysis is utilized in the field of pragmatics. Pragmatics is often defined as “the study of language in use” and deals with the relationship of sentences to their discourse environment or “how language is produced and interpreted in context” (Swann, Deumert, Mesthrie, & Lillis, 2004, p. 248).

The approach to the study of language and society taken in the present study falls within the domain of sociopragmatics, a subfield of pragmatics that is defined as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (Crystal, 1997, p. 301). In this definition, language use is investigated in its sociocultural context, taking into consideration the situational setting and interpersonal factors, and has to be distinguished from discourse pragmatics (another subfield of pragmatics), which places its emphasis on textual (or anaphoric) aspects of messages (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000).

In the field of sociopragmatics, a useful distinction is made between the knowledge of pragmalinguistic features and sociopragmatic norms (Leech 1983; Thomas, 1983). Pragmalinguistic features are the linguistic resources a particular language provides for conveying communicative acts, or “the linguistic inventory used to perform pragmatic functions” (Trosborg 1998, p. 239), while sociopragmatic norms determine when or how to employ these resources in social contexts. To illustrate, German employs two second person singular pronouns of address for designating a single addressee, the informal *du* and the formal *Sie.* These are pragmalinguistic features. Which of the two pronouns is considered appropriate in a given context depends on a variety of factors, such as the interlocutors' age, relative power, and level of familiarity as well their goals and attitudes. All these factors contribute to sociopragmatic norms (i.e., shared practices of a community) and lead to certain types of address behaviors, such as nonreciprocal forms of address between older and younger speakers.

2.2.2 Variation as a Central Element in Sociolinguistics

Inherent to a sociolinguistic approach to the study of language is the notion of variability. Language variation can take place across groups of speakers ('interspeaker variation') and in the speech of individual speakers ('intraspeaker variation'; Schilling-Estes, 2002, p. 375). The term 'language variety' is usually associated with interspeaker variation and the notion of 'speech styles' with intraspeaker variation, but it is important to note that there is no clear dividing line between them (e.g., a speaker might shift in and out of varieties depending on the formality of the speech style). Both different varieties and speech styles can be characteristics of groups of users or situations of use.

The study of stylistic variation has been approached from a variety of perspectives and has resulted in various theoretical frameworks. Labov's (1972) "Attention to Speech" model was among the first attempts to explain stylistic variation. In this model, he explains style shifts in terms of the amount of attention speakers pay to their speech. In more casual situations, speakers pay less attention, resulting in a more informal speech style that is closer to the vernacular. In more formal situations, speakers pay more attention to their speech and exhibit features that are associated with the standard variety. In other words, as speakers move from more casual to more formal situations, features of their speech can be placed along a vernacular-standard continuum. Labov furthermore argued that not only the formality of the situation but also social class contributes to stylistic variation. Variants found in more casual styles also appear more frequently in the speech of lower social classes, while those found in more formal speech in higher classes. Thus, in Labov's model, speech style is closely intertwined with social class.

Despite the insights this model offers, it was later criticized for being too unidimensional (not all speech styles can be explained on the grounds of attention to speech or social class), too limited in scope (style shifts exceed the phonological and morphosyntactical level), and too passive (speakers are not just passive respondents to their external situation; e.g., Bell, 1984).

Other, more recent approaches acknowledge that style shifts are highly complex phenomena. According to Schilling-Estes (2002), style shifts occur on all the different levels of language organization, "ranging from the phonological and morphosyntactical to the lexical and pragmatic/interactional, to paralinguistic features such as intonation, to non-linguistic elements of style such as hair, clothing, makeup, body positioning, and use of space" (p. 377). In addition, style shifts can be either responsive or initiative. Speakers can either adjust their speech to their environment (e.g., audience members) and/or engage in style shifts in order to construct their environment. According to this approach, speakers are seen as active participants who do not just alter their speech as a reaction to the external situation but to actively shape their surroundings by means of stylistic resources. Speaker design approaches (e.g., Coupland, 2001; Eckert, 2001) take this view even further by emphasizing that stylistic choices are never made independent of speaker agency. Even style shifts that seem merely responsive, are active and creative in the sense that speakers "opt to operate communicatively within normative bounds" (Schilling-Estes, 2002, p. 389). How the distinction between responsive and initiative style shifts is relevant to the present study is discussed in the following sections.

2.2.3 Variant Features as a Legitimate and Important Element in the L2 Classroom

The issue of variability was largely ignored in the recent history of second and foreign language instruction. According to Kramsch (2002), in foreign language instruction, the standard constituted the basis upon which pedagogical decisions were made. The language norm mostly chosen in the L2 context was the "native speaker norm." Following Chomsky's view, this native speaker norm was often defined in terms of invariant language knowledge of the idealized native speaker.

With the emergence of a communicative approach to language teaching, the views towards the integration of the teaching of sociolinguistic variation have somewhat changed. As Auger (2003) states, "many [pedagogues] now explicitly acknowledge that multiple norms exist and that students should be equipped to use the target language in a variety of different settings" (p. 79). Nevertheless actual classroom practice does not necessarily reflect this belief. This might be due to a variety of common misconceptions held by language teaching practitioners. One common belief is that grammatical competence is more important than sociolinguistic competence in order to communicate successfully. Contrary to this assumption are empirical research findings. Sociolinguistic research shows that native speakers have generally more tolerance towards the violation of linguistic than sociolinguistic rules. If a nonnative speaker appears to speak fluently, but does not use the target language appropriately, native speakers tend to experience this lack of knowledge as impolite or unfriendly (Trosborg, 1995). One such example stems from research on academic advising sessions conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993). In their study, the researchers found that non-native speakers had a tendency to leave suggestions about their coursework to their advisor. As a result, they rejected their advisor's ideas more frequently than native speakers. When making suggestions, the learners often used assertive structures such as "I will take language testing" instead of using more tentative forms like "How about I take x course instead" or "I don't know how it would work out, but…" as employed by native speaking students. Overall, the learner's inability to appropriately use mitigation forms had a negative impact on the way they were perceived as well as on the outcome of the advising session. They were less successful in obtaining their advisor's permission to enroll for the courses they favored.

Another misconception held by language teaching practitioners is that sociolinguistic knowledge and other aspects of pragmatic knowledge are universal and may simply develop alongside grammatical competence without any pedagogic intervention. Even though certain pragmatic aspects are in fact universal (Kasper, 1997), learners often lack the ability to successfully transfer available knowledge and strategies to new tasks and environments. This is also true for learners at advanced proficiency levels (see e.g., Bouton, 1988).

Language instruction based on a communicative approach has to consider variability in language as a central element for the very reason that variability is inherent to language in use. The teaching of sociolinguistic variation equips learners with the ability to respond actively to their environment as well as to shape it actively.[4] In other words, communication is more than denoting referential meaning. We communicate in order to also express something about ourselves in relation to others. According to Parkinson (1985), the social meaning of a communicative act expresses “who the speaker believes he is, who he believes the addressee is, what he thinks their relationship is, and what he thinks he is doing by saying what he is saying” (p. 5). A precondition for being able to choose appropriate linguistic features as required by the situational context or a speaker’s communicative intent is an awareness of the different variants one may select. It is thus imperative for successful language instruction to introduce learning opportunities that raise learners’ awareness of the different options they can appropriately choose from.

Although many of these pedagogical issues remain unresolved, there is a growing body of research dealing with sociolinguistic issues in language instruction. A useful framework for including language variation into the curriculum is Valdman’s notion of *pedagogical norm* (1989). A pedagogical norm is supposed to guide teachers in their decisions about which language variety to teach, which sociolinguistic variants to include in their instruction, and how to sequence those target language features (Blyth 2003). According to Valdman (1989), a pedagogical norm should be based on linguistic, sociolinguistic, and psycholinguistic dimensions: 1) the actual production of native speakers in authentic communicative situations; 2) the native speakers’ idealized views of their speech and the perceptions of both native and nonnatives regarding the expected behavior of foreign language learners; and 3) the relative ease of learning and use of a

[4] These two abilities mirror the above-mentioned distinction between responsive and initiative style shifts, as observed in the language use of native speakers.

given form.

Valdman (2003) illustrates the construct of pedagogical norm by applying it to the teaching of French morphosyntax and phonetics. His primary example is the case of French wh-interrogative constructions with its four major variants in situ, wh-fronting, est-ce que, and inversion, as shown in Table 2.1. Although all four variants serve the same general purpose, i.e., to elicit information, each has unique pragmatic functions. The analysis of native speaker data from a large corpus reveals that inversion is the most formal variant, which is generally limited to the written standard. *Est-ce que* is considered neutral and appropriate for all contexts. Both *in situ* and fronting are informal forms that are most frequently used in the everyday speech of metropolitan French speakers. Interestingly enough, this finding does not correspond with native speakers' evaluation of their own speech (in which they clearly favor inversion and disfavor the stigmatized fronting construction).[5]

What consequences do these findings have for L2 instruction? In the traditional language curriculum, students are only introduced to the variants *est-ce que* and inversion, the syntactically more complex but neutral forms. Valdman (2003) suggests an intervention strategy employing the three dimensions for a pedagogical norm. In stage one, learners should be introduced to fronting, the form that is used most frequently found in oral native speaker speech (linguistic dimension). Due to its simple structural properties (question word – subject – verb) it is furthermore considered the most easily learnable structure for the students (psycholinguistic dimension). Later in the instruction, fronting should be replaced by *est-ce que*, the more neutral form. Along with *est-ce que*,

[5] According to Magnan and Walz (2002), "fronting is a very familiar style used by most French speakers, but is associated with working class speech and is therefore stigmatized" (36).

Table 2.1

French Wh-interrogative Variant Constructions (adapted from Valdman, 2003, p. 62)

Formal	Inversion	*Quand pars-tu?*	When are you leaving?
Informal	In Situ	*Tu pars quand?*	
Informal	Fronting	*Quand tu pars?*	
Neutral	Est-ce que	*Quand est-ce que tu pars?*	

inversion should be taught for purposes of written production or more formal oral discourse (sociolinguistic dimension). In later stages, the learners should be exposed to all four variants in connection with instruction on sociolinguistic and syntactic rules that determine their use.

The construct of the pedagogical norm is both a useful and a challenging concept. It aims at including sociolinguistic variation into L2 instruction and thus questions the more conventional view of L2 instruction that only a standard variety should serve as a target norm. It furthermore acknowledges that language exists in multiple forms, resulting in various target language norms that can potentially guide L2 learning. When put into practice, however, the construct of pedagogical norm can also be a challenging concept to language teaching practitioners since it needs to be based on large corpora of authentic native speaker speech from a variety of discourse contexts. Although the body of research on L1 discourse and grammar that uses the tools and techniques of corpus linguistics is constantly growing (Biber 1999), more research is needed that makes an attempt to integrate discourse-level phenomena into L2 language pedagogy.

2.2.4 Summary

A sociolinguistic approach to the study of language investigates the effects of society on the way language is used. A central notion inherent to such an approach is the notion of variability or how language use differs across groups of speakers and in the speech of individual speakers. The issue of variability was largely ignored in the history of language teaching, but with the emergence of the communicative approach, has become a central topic of debate. There is now a growing consensus among applied linguistics that sociolinguistic variation should be integrated into the teaching of an L2, and to introduce students to more authentic language as it is used in a variety of settings by speakers of the target language. Despite this general agreement that sociolinguistic competence should be a goal in language learning, there are still many issues that stay unresolved. Remaining questions are at what level learners should be introduced to sociolinguistic variation, what aspects of sociolinguistic variation should be taught, or even if sociolinguistic competence is an attainable goal, particularly in a foreign language context, where learners generally have no or little contact with native speakers. A useful framework designed to guide teachers in their decisions how to integrate sociolinguistic variation is provided by Valdman.

In a sociolinguistic approach to the study of language learning and teaching, communicative competence, “the ability to communicate in a personally effective and socially appropriate manner” (Trenholm & Jensen, 1988), becomes a central goal. The following section provides a review of the notion of communicative competence, and introduces relevant models of language knowledge in order to precisely situate address forms, the learning target of the present study, alongside other types of language knowledge.

2.3 Models of Language Knowledge

Hymes' (1972) model of communicative competence first integrated aspects of language use. In contrast to Chomsky's definition of 'competence' as grammatical competence, Hymes claims that knowing a language is not limited to knowing its underlying rules of vocabulary and grammar. One also has to know how to use the language appropriately in order to communicate effectively. Indeed, as Hymes argues, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 278).

Hymes' model of communicative competence, although originally designed to describe the language knowledge of native speakers, was soon adapted to the L2 context. Building on Hymes distinction of grammatical and communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980), and Canale (1983) elaborated the model to include strategic and discourse competence. Grammatical competence deals with the language code itself and encompasses "knowledge of lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 29). Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different social settings and are thus dependent on contextual factors such as the role and relationship of interlocutors, channel, and topic. Discourse competence concerns the level of mastery in combining grammatical forms and meanings to achieve unified spoken or written texts, thus relating the appropriateness of utterances to their linguistic contexts. Strategic competence refers to communication strategies we apply in order to compensate for breakdowns in communication. It enables speakers to make up for gaps in their linguistic, sociolinguistic, or discourse knowledge system and thus plays a role in all three competencies described above.

To this day, Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence has served as an intellectual basis for the Communicative Approach and can be said to hold the status of a dominant paradigm, despite the fact that the framework has been widely discussed, evaluated, and elaborated (see e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 1996, Brumfit, 1984, Celce-Murcia, 1995). For the the present study, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model was particularly useful. Designed for the purpose of language testing, the model constitutes a more detailed and comprehensive analysis than models of communicative competence that were primarily designed for the purpose of theory construction.

In Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model, language ability is comprised of language knowledge and a set of metacognitive strategies, by means of which language knowledge becomes available to learners in situations of language use. Language knowledge is furthermore divided into two main categories: organizational and pragmatic knowledge. Organizational knowledge refers to the organization of utterances, sentences, and texts and includes grammatical and textual knowledge. Pragmatic knowledge is defined as "how utterances and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting" (p. 67), and includes functional and sociolinguistic[6] knowledge. Subdomains of sociolinguistic knowledge are the knowledge of dialects/varieties, registers, natural or idiomatic expressions, cultural references, and figures of speech. Bachman and Palmer's model of language knowledge is represented in Figure 2.1. The white circle marks the aspect of sociolinguistic

[6]The term 'sociolinguistic knowledge' in the present model could as well be substituted with the term 'sociopragmatic knowledge' since it is a subcomponent of pragmatic knowledge (personal correspondence with Palmer, 4/2005).

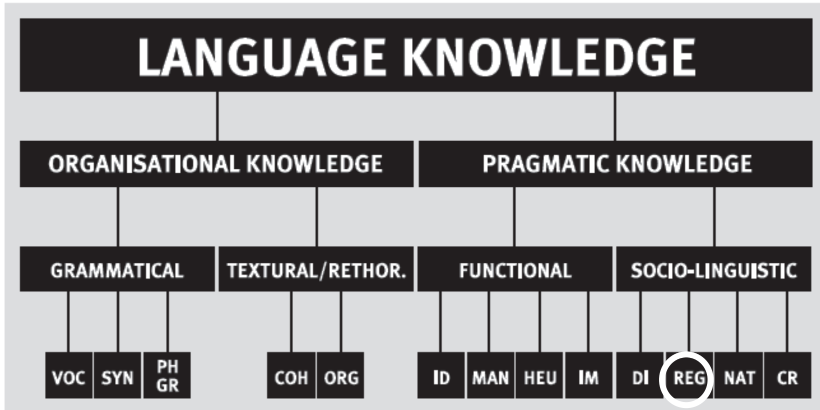

Figure 2.1: Language knowledge (based on Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

knowledge that constitutes the focus of the present study: the concept of registers. The key to the abbreviations used in Figure 2.1 is as follows: Vocabulary (VOC); Syntax (SYN); Phonology (PH); Grammar (GR); Coherence (COH); Organization (ORG); Ideational functions (ID); MAN = Manipulative functions (MAN); HEU=Heuristic functions (HEU); IM =Imaginative functions (IM); DI = Dialect or Variety (D); REG = Registers (REG); NAT = Naturalness (NAT); CR = Cultural references and figures of speech (CR) .

It should be noted that address forms in German can vary regionally, and thus also constitute an instance of dialect variation. However, the research focus of the present study is limited to how address forms vary according to situations of use and thus excludes the above-listed category dialects/ varieties.

The term ‘register’ has been defined in many different ways in the field of sociolinguistics. In its narrow sense, it is used to refer to “sets of vocabulary items associated with discrete occupational or social groups” (Wardhaugh, 1992, p. 49) and is distinguished from styles or situational language varieties, such as formal versus informal speech. Biber (1994, 2001), on the other hand, uses ‘register’ as a more general term for “any variety associated with particular situational contexts and purposes” and distinguishes it from ‘dialects,’ defined as “varieties associated with different groups of speakers” (Biber, 1994, p. 1). Schilling-Estes (2002) defines registers and dialects as subcomponents of intraspeaker variation (variation in the speech of individuals), which she distinguishes from interspeaker variation (variation across groups of speakers), both making up stylistic variation (Schilling-Estes 2002). Corresponding with Biber’s definition, registers are associated with particular situations of use. The present study adopts Biber’s and Schilling-Estes’ definition of register, using it as a general term referring to situationally defined varieties and as a subcomponent of stylistic variation.

Register variation takes place at all levels of language organization, ranging from the phonological and morphosyntactical to the lexical, pragmatic, and discourse levels. Register shifts can be either responsive or initiative (Schilling-Estes, 2002). They can be triggered by situational factors that are external to the speaker or consciously employed by the speaker due to speaker-internal factors. Examples of external factors are the setting, the topic, as well as the relationship between the interlocutors as conditioned by their age, sex, social status, or relative power. Instances of speaker-internal factors are the speaker’s conversational goals or motivations.

How speakers adjust their style not only in reaction to the situational context, but also to bring about changes to the relationship between the participants, can best be seen by means of an illustration. The use of the formal German pronoun of address *Sie* can be used to address a single speaker in order to express distance and respect. Speaker-external factors that trigger this use are, for instance, age, power, and lack of familiarity. Thus, adults who have never met before by default use the form *Sie.* Yet *Sie* can also be used in order to maintain distance or even to articulate mild dislike. In other words, one might already have known another adult for a certain amount of time but still use the formal pronoun of address for the purpose of keeping the other person from entering one’s private sphere or even to establish the person's outsider status. In the latter instances, the use of *Sie* is motivated by speaker-internal factors.

2.4 Forms of Address

Languages mark the social relationship between participants in different ways. Depending on the language under discussion one can generally distinguish between particular nominal, pronominal, or verbal forms. The distribution and use of elements like the familiar and polite pronouns of address provide fundamental information about the identities of the participants in an interaction. The following sections will first provide an overview of the forms of the address system in contemporary German, and then discuss how forms of address have been portrayed in beginning-level L2 teaching materials.

2.4.1 Overview: Forms of Address in L1 German

Colloquial German consists of a wide range of linguistic means and strategies employed to address one’s interlocutor(s). An overview of these various features is provided by Zifonun, Hoffmann, and Strecker (1997). The approach of the Zifonun grammar is particularly valuable for a sociolinguistically motivated approach to L2 teaching since its examples are based on corpus data and thus reflect language as it is actually used rather than native speaker intuitions.

The authors (Zifonun et al., 1997) describe addressing someone as an act of reference that can be achieved by means of deictic expressions (pronouns), numerous noun forms of address (e.g., personal names, titles), or by means of greeting formulas. This classification is represented in Table 2.2.

The present study focuses on forms of address in short, dyadic, spoken, face-to-face conversations that take place in the university setting. The forms that are relevant in this context are the second person singular personal pronouns *du* and *Sie* ("you") including all case variations (see Table 2.3), the second person singular possessive pronouns *dein* and *Ihr* ("your") including all case variations (see Table 2.4), the reflexive pronouns *dich* and *sich* (no equivalent) including all case variations (see Table 2.5), the nominal forms personal names, respectful names, titles, and roles and function as well as greeting formulas. All the other categories listed above will be excluded. The following sections will provide a detailed overview of the three main categories of forms of address chosen for the present study: pronominal forms, nominal forms, and greeting formulas.

2.4.1.1 Pronominal forms. Among the plethora of research papers on the use of address terms, Brown and Gilman's (1960) article "The pronouns of power and solidarity" is frequently cited. Although their work has often been challenged and subsequently expanded to include more complex models, their study can be said to form the basis of a semantically-driven classification of pronominal use. In their paper, Brown and Gilman distinguish between two semantic types, power and solidarity, that govern pronominal use in a variety of European languages. 'Power' in their definition is a relationship between at least two people, in which one person has control over the behavior of the other. Domains of power are physical or financial superiority, age, and sex as well as institutionalized power as realized in the context of the church, the state,

Table 2.2

Forms of Address (based on Zifonun, Hoffmann & Strecker, 1997, pp. 916-917)

Categories	**Explanations**	**Possible Examples**
T (from Latin ‘tu’)	Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns, 2nd person (singular plural, informal) including all case variations (see Tables 2.3, 2.4, 2.5)	*du, ihr* “you”
V (from Latin ‘vos)	Personal, possessive, and reflexive pronouns, 2nd person (singular plural, informal) including all case variations (see Tables 2.3, 2.4, 2.5)	*Sie* “you”
FN	First name	*Konrad, Erika*
LN	Last name	*Adenauer, von Einem*
TE	Terms of endearment	*Schatz* “honey”
KT	Kinship terms	*Mama, Vati* “mom”, “daddy”
T	Titles Mr., Mrs., Ms.	*Herr, Frau* “mister”, misses”,
OT	Optional titles	*Doktor, Professor* “doctor”, “professor”
R/F	Description of roles and functions	*Wirtin, Lehrer* “waitress”, “teacher”
GA	Addressing of groups	*Meine Damen und Herren* “ladies and gentlemen”,
GF	Greeting formulas	*He, Hallo, Achtung, Entschuldigen Sie* “hey”, “hello”, “watch out”, “excuse me

Table 2.3

Personal Pronouns (2nd Person Singular) with Case Variations

	T Form	V Form
Nominative	du	Sie
Dative	dir	Ihnen
Accusative	dich	Sie

Table 2.4

Possessive Pronouns (2nd Person Singular) with Case Variations

	T Form			V Form		
	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	dein	deine	dein	Ihr	Ihre	Ihr
Genitive	deines	deiner	deines	Ihres	Ihrer	Ihres
Dative	deinem	deiner	deinem	Ihrem	Ihrer	Ihrem
Accusative	deinen	deine	dein	Ihren	Ihre	Ihr

Table 2.5

Reflexive Pronouns (2nd Person Singular) with Case Variations

	T Form	V Form
Dative	dir	sich
Accusative	dich	sich

the army, or the family. Power is nonreciprocal in the sense that both participants cannot have power in the same domain or "area of behavior" (p. 255). To illustrate, if A is older than B, B cannot at the same time be older than A, which results in a relation called "more powerful than" (p. 257). In some languages power relations are linguistically encoded in the *T/V* dichotomy,[7] in which "the superior says *T* and receives *V*." In the case of equivalent power, pronominal address is reciprocal, resulting in a mutual *V* or *T*, referred to as "the *T* of intimacy" and "the *V* of formality" (p. 257) or 'solidarity.' As solidarity declines, the usage of *V* becomes more probable; as it increases, *T* is likely to be employed. Attributes of solidarity are, e.g., political attitude, family, religion, profession, sex, and origin. The dimension of power and solidarity can overlap when, for example, an individual with greater power shows solidarity with the person with lesser power, as exemplified in the parent-child relationship. This overlap results in a complex address system, in which the two semantic forces are opposed.

While the findings by Brown and Gilman are still valuable for current research in the domain of pronominal use in German, many researchers have revised and expanded their two-dimensional semantic model. In her article "Intimacy, solidarity and distance," DeLisle (1986) proposes two different systems of German pronominal address, labeled "A1" and "A2." Both systems employ the use of *du* and *Sie,* but differ in their "basic standard form of address and their semantic dimensions:"

> In A1, 'Sie' is the standard form of address, used with everyone except the family, friends, and children under sixteen. The semantic dimensions of A1 are formality, distance, authority, and respect on the one hand and intimacy and informality on the other, where 'Sie' generally indicates a formal relationship and

[7]The European development of two pronouns of address in the second person singular can be traced back to the pronominal forms tu and vos in Latin (Brown & Gilman, p. 254). Based on this distinction, the symbols T and V are generally employed in the literature, the former referring to the familiar and the latter to the formal second person singular pronoun of address in any given language.

> ‘du’ an intimate one.
>
> In A2, ‘du’ is the standard form of address. As in A1, it is used with the family, friends, and children, but beyond these groups its usage does not necessarily reflect a close relationship between speaker and addressee. Rather, it can signal that both belong to the same group, sharing the same interest. In this system, nonmembers of the group are addressed with ‘Sie’. ‘Sie’ is used to label the outsider, to signal nonsolidarity and social distance. (p. 4)

In addition to their standard form of address and their semantic dimensions, the two systems also differ “…with respect to optionality, permanence, reciprocity and range” (DeLisle, 1986, p. 4). In A1, it is the individual who makes the decision whether to use *du* or *Sie*. In A2, on the other hand, the choice is a group decision. Once a group has agreed upon using *du*, every member is expected to use *du* in order to create a sense of solidarity within the group. Nonmembers are generally addressed with *Sie*, and thus the choice of pronoun can be said to create a sense of inclusion/exclusion. Furthermore, the two systems differ in terms of permanence. Du1 is considered more permanent than Du2, since it is based on the semantic dimension of intimacy.

In contrast, Du2 is based on the dimension of solidarity, which can be revoked more easily: “Once the basis for solidarity no longer exists or once a person has left the group, the Du2 address is no longer appropriate” (DeLisle, 1986, p. 4). A1 is described as the more general system, because its usage is not restricted to specific groups. DeLisle furthermore claims that not all German speakers use both systems. Rather “[they] can be divided into three main groups, namely those that only use A1, those that only use A2 and those that use both A1 and A2” (p. 5). Whereas members of the older generation are most likely to fall within group 1, there might be some students who solely operate within system A2 (group 2). The vast majority of young speakers, though, is said to fall within the third group that uses both systems. “They control both A1 and A2 and will choose between the two systems depending on the situation and the persons involved" (p. 5).

Similarly to DeLisle's classification, the comprehensive empirical study by Clyne et al. (2006) on address practice in German and Swedish revealed three prototypical types of address situations (implying that that all situations have "clear 'core prototypes'" but nevertheless show "fuzzy edges") currently in use in Germany and Austria (p. 294). Type 1 refers to situations in which a reciprocal *du* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address (e.g., among family or close friends); type 2 encompasses situations in which a reciprocal *Sie* is considered the unmarked form of address (e.g., in formal and/ or hierarchical situations or with strangers); type 3 includes situations demonstrating the coexistence of two systems, one tending towards unmarked *du*, the other towards unmarked *Sie.*

The three types emerged as a result of the following two concepts: markedness and social distance. The concept of markedness serves to contrast the general (=unmarked) with the special (=marked). Social distance is defined as "the degree of social intimacy with, or detachment from, a particular interlocutor" (p. 289). Participants in a conversation can establish the extent of social distance by convention or negotiate it on an individual basis. Social distance furthermore correlates with particular domains (e.g., workplace vs. private domain) and the medium of communication (e.g., letter vs. face-to-face communication). Kretzenbacher, Clyne, and Schupbach (2006)[8] provide detailed examples from their interview data for each prototypical address situation. Excerpts are given below:

[8] Both studies by Clyne et al. (2006) and Kretzenbach, Clyne, and Schupbach (2006), are part of a larger, Australian-based project comparing address systems of French, German, and Swedish.

1 Unmarked du-Situation (p. 3)
Firstly, there is a nonnegotiable context for *du* use by and to family and close friends.
(…)
However, the situation may become fuzzy and less clear-cut with peripheral family members, e.g., with the parents of the spouse or partner or with brothers- and sisters-in-law. While no informant would expect to use *Sie* or be addressed as *Sie* in communication with their parents, this form as well as nonreciprocal use of address forms is used with parents of spouse or partner.
(…)

2 Unmarked Sie-Situation (pp. 3-4)
The second context, an unmarked *Sie* situation, is found in interactions with strangers and authorities, in interactions involving hierarchical relationships, and generally in formal contexts.
(…)
However, fuzzy edges are apparent in this context as well. While all but one of the informants see reciprocal *Sie* as the unmarked forms of address with shop assistants in shops where they do not shop regularly, the situation with shop assistants in shops that are regularly frequented by the informants show some variation.
(…)

3 The Coexistence of Two Systems: Ambivalent Category (pp. 5-6)
T and V is determined by network practice rather than individual relationships:
Individuals belong to several different networks, some of which may have T and some V as their preferred pronouns of address.
(…)
A typical network would be the workplace.
Overall reciprocal T is clearly more prevalent among colleagues than with superiors, whereas *Sie* is the unmarked form in relationships with clients.
(…)
Different perceptions of social distance by communication partners:
Unexpected *du* signals that the informant perceives the social distance as greater than his or her interlocutor, unexpected *Sie* that the informant perceives the social distance as lower than his or her interlocutor.

As the examples above show, the first two address situations show clear prototypes with some fuzzy edges. The third situation, however, is rather different in nature. Even though rules exist, they are often ambiguous, constitute a high embarrassment potential, and clearly require a great deal of negotiation between interlocutors.

Winchatz (2001) provides a different take on the issue of social meaning as created in pronoun use. Her findings are based on ethnographic research of the second person pronoun, *Sie,* consisting of in-depth interviews with 50 German native speakers as well as participant observations of naturally occurring interaction. Winchatz's research in the city of Landau in Southwest Germany reveals a total of 25 social meanings of the formal pronoun, ranging from age, politeness, closeness, and power to anger, arrogance, and rejection. Whenever an interlocutor uses the pronoun *Sie*, he or she expresses a variety of social meanings at once. The author states:

> The combination of social meaning will vary, as well as the weight given to each social meaning, every time the utterance of a particular pronoun occurs. Such variations in the combinations and weighting of social meanings depend on the particular communicative context and specifically the relationship between the interlocutors. (p. 364)

Rather than presenting an explanatory model similar to, for example, Brown and Gilman and DeLisle, Winchatz stresses the importance of the individual's communicative intent. By investigating speakers' and hearers' own interpretations of "their experiences of communicative forms" (p. 338), her approach uncovers more hidden nuances of social meaning: "For all the explanatory parsimony that two- or three-dimensional theories provide, they do not account for the varied and nuanced meanings that speakers understand themselves to be negotiating in their daily interactions" (p. 349).

Each of the approaches introduced above focuses on different aspects of pronoun usage and thus fulfills a different purpose and goal. The semantic approach suggested by Brown and Gilman uncovers general underlying rules that are universally applicable to the choice of address forms. Their two-dimensional model explains how humans relate to one another on the basis of the two semantic types of power and solidarity. These two dimensions, according to Brown and Gilman, are universal to all languages, although they are encoded in different ways.

Winchatz's research, in contrast, focuses mostly on the role of the individual in social interaction, namely the speaker's intent or the addressee's interpretation of the speaker's intent. Her study provides important insights into individual differences in the expression of social meanings through particular pronoun choice. According to Winchatz, it is not enough to ask which rules apply in interpersonal communication, but also how speakers determine which specific rules to apply in a particular situation. In other words, interlocutors must have the ability to interpret each other's attributes or features (e.g., their personality) correctly, as well as contextual cues of specific situations in order to choose appropriate linguistic forms. It is thus not sufficient for speakers to know, for example, that they are more powerful than the addressee, which in Brown and Gilman's framework would trigger asymmetrical pronoun use with the superior using *T,* but receiving *V*. In addition, interlocutors have to consider the context of the interaction, and select specific communicative patterns that reflect their communicative intent.

DeLisle emphasizes the interaction of different variables in social interactions. Semantic types, such as intimacy, solidarity, and distance might conflict with other contextual variables, such as a person's appearance, age, or gender. Depending on the pronominal system in which interlocutors operate, these variables are more or less important for the interpretation of the situation and, by extension, the choice of pronominal use. DeLisle's theory acknowledges the importance of the individual, but still seeks to find regularities across users. The same holds true for the approach taken by Clyne et al. (2006).

The approaches suggested by DeLisle (1986) and Clyne (2006) have most significantly informed the present study; the terminology used throughout is adopted from Clyne (2006), who uses the term "prototypes," rather than "systems," indicating that there are clear examples but fuzzy boundaries.

2.4.1.2 Nominal forms. The use of nominal forms of address is closely linked to pronoun choice. From the various categories presented in Table 2.2, the following nominal forms of address will be considered in the present study[9]: personal names: first (FN) and last names (LN); title (T): *Herr* ("Mr."), *Frau* ("Mrs./Ms.")[10], optional titles (OT): *Professor, Doktor* ("professor," "doctor"); roles and functions (R.F): *Kollege, Chef* ("colleague," "boss").

In contemporary German, possible combinations of the less to more formal categories are: T + LN: *Herr/Frau Neuhauser* ("Mr. / Ms. Neuhauser"); T + R/F: *Herr/ Frau Bundeskanzler* ("Mr./ Ms. President"); OT + LN: *Professor Neuhauser* ("Professor Neuhauser"); T + OT + LN: *Herr/Frau Professor Neuhauser* ("Mr. Professor Neuhauser"); T +OT + OT + LN*: Herr*/*FrauProfessor Doktor N.* ("Mr. Professor Doctor Neuhauser").

According to Zifonun et al. (1997), optional titles are typically used in combination with *Herr/Frau* (example b), with the exception of clerical, academic, or ambassadorial settings (example c) where they can be used without the title. The combination *Herr/Frau* + optional title(s) + last name is extremely formal, sounds rather outdated, and is most likely found in written speech.

---

[9]For a detailed overview of noun forms of address, see Sacia, L. 2006, p. 22-25.
[10]The title *Fräulein* is outdated and is only used occasionally, e.g., when addressing waitresses in restaurants (Zifonun et al., 1997). It is therefore excluded from the discussion.

In their comprehensive study on address norms in German and Swedish, Clyne et al. (2006) empirically investigate the co-occurrence rules of address forms. Their research questions states, “How does the pronoun use agree with the use of titles and last names versus first names and the use of greetings?” (p. 293). According to the authors, the use of *Sie* is generally assumed to trigger the use of title(s)[11] and last name, and that *du* is followed by the first name. Their data, obtained from focus groups and participant observations, revealed that in addition to these most common co-occurrences, a variety of ‘compromise forms’ exist. Examples are, *Frau Müller, du wirst zur Kasse gebeten* (“Ms Müller, you are asked to come to the checkout!”) and *Du Schlosser, komm mal her!* (“Hey, locksmith, come here for a moment!”). The first example was observed in a major department store and exhibits the use of T + last name + *du*. The second example features the use of *du* + occupation and was employed by tradesmen working together on a construction site. Yet another instance of a compromise form reported by informants was the co-occurrence of FN +*Sie* (p. 301).This combination was noticed in several situations, such as in hospitals when doctors were addressing nurses, in university settings when professors were addressing student research assistants and administrative staff, or when older people were addressing their friends' grown-up children whom they had known since childhood. In all these instances, the use of FN + *Sie* was nonreciprocal, meaning that the person of higher status or age used FN + *Sie* in order, while the person of lower status or age used title(s) + *Sie*. The most common co-occurrence options are: FN + *du*, T + LN + *Si*e, OT + LN + *Si*e, and T + OT + *Sie* (also see Clyne, 1995).

[11]The term ‘title(s)’ is used when there are several options, namely T, OT, or T + OT.

2.4.1.3 Greeting formulas. Greetings are of interest for the present study, because they fulfill, along with other forms of address, the important social function of establishing and maintaining interpersonal relationships between the participants in a conversation, and are subject to the same variables that have been identified for pronominal and nominal address forms in the above discussion. The following sections will first provide a general introduction to what constitutes a greeting and then move to a more specific discussion on how the use of greetings agrees with the use of other forms of address.

Greetings have been studied from a variety of perspectives: by human ethnologists with the purpose of revealing some of the evolutionary bases of human communication, by ethnographers in order to uncover social cross-cultural differences and universal aspects, by conversation analysts with a focus on their sequential nature, and by speech act theorists with an emphasis on their illocutionary force (Duranti, 1997). More recently, greetings have also become of interest to researchers in the field of SLA. Due to cross-cultural differences between a learner's native language and the target language, they sometimes cause significant difficulty for L2 learners (e.g., Eisenstein-Ebsworth, Bodman, & Carpenter, 1996).

What constitutes a greeting? Greetings exhibit both universal and culture-specific features. Duranti (1997) proposes six criteria for identifying greetings across languages and speech communities: (i) near-boundary occurrence; (ii) establishment of a shared perceptual field; (iii) adjacency pair format; (iv) relative predictability of form and content; (v) implicit establishment of a spatio-temporal unit of interaction; and (vi) identification of the interlocutor as a distinct being worth recognizing.

Greetings are typically performed at the beginning, or "near the boundary" of a social encounter as an "attention-getting device" (criterion i; Duranti, 1997, p. 68), immediately after participants have recognized each other's presence in the same perceptual field (criterion ii; pp. 68-69). They usually occur as two-part sequences (criteria iii; p. 69), and compared to other kinds of interactions, are relatively predictable in terms of their form and content (criteria iv; p. 70). Greetings also typically stand by themselves and thus constitute a unit of interaction of their own (criteria v; pp. 70-71). Since greetings are not performed in every encounter in which two people enter the same perceptual field, they serve to identify the interlocutor as "a distinct being worth recognizing" (p. 71). In short, the six criteria address aspects relevant to the study of greetings: their spatial and temporal organization in a verbal exchange (criteria i, ii, v), their form and content (criteria iii, iv), and their function (criteria vi).

The goals of the following discussion are to provide information on the social variables that trigger the use of a particular greeting, and to look at how the use of greetings agrees with the use of address pronouns and nominal forms of address. Miodek (1994) provides the most comprehensive analysis of the use of greetings in L1 German. By means of questionnaires, interviews, and corpora data,[12] the author compiled a list of common greetings in spoken standard German along with their co-occurrence rules, stressing the social dimension of greetings. The results of Miodek's study will be summarized along with findings from a survey I conducted in April and May 2008.

This survey was administered by means of the online tool *SurveyMonkey* and was given to a random selection of 100 native speakers of German, ages 20-60. The

[12] Corpora of Spoken German from the Institute of the German Language (IDS): http://dsav-wiss.ids mannheim.de/

participants were asked to select from a multiple choice/ multiple answers format combination of address forms they found acceptable. For instance, they were asked whether they considered the greeting *hi* acceptable when addressing three different people they know little: Susanne, who is in her mid-20s, Frau Klein (Mrs. Klein), who is in their mid-30s, and Professor Burgschmidt, who is in her mid-40s. The participants were also asked to decide which combinations of primary and secondary greetings they found acceptable. For instance, can the primary greeting *hallo* only be combined with the informal version of 'How are you?' (*Wie geht's?*) or does it also sound acceptable in combination with the formal version *Wie geht es Ihnen?* (for the complete survey and an English translation, see Appendix A). I decided to collect some additional data for the following two reasons: First, Miodek's study was conducted in 1996 and the use of address form is rapidly changing. Second, in some instances, his data seemed to lack detail. The results of the survey showed that Miodek's description is still accurate today, with the exception of the greeting *hallo,* which is also becoming more acceptable in official situations and in combination with not only the T but also the V version of address forms. Before discussing the individual greetings in detail, the following greeting categories are introduced: official and unofficial, activity-specific and general, primary and secondary, greeting substitutes and nonverbal greetings**.**

According to Miodek (1995), greetings differ in official and unofficial speech situations. Official speech situations (e.g., public encounters) are characterized by the participants' neutral attitude towards each other and often involve highly conventionalized formulas; many are also specific to a particular time of the day. Examples of such formulaic greetings are *Hallo, Guten Morgen, Guten Tag, Guten*

Abend ("hello", "good morning", "good day/hello", "good evening"). In unofficial speech situations (e.g., at home and among friends) greetings greatly vary and include the use of reduced forms, diminutives, and phonetic or regional variants. Examples are *Morgen* or *Moin* ("morning"), *Hallöchen* (diminutive of *Hallo* "hello"), and *Tag* or *Tach* ("day"). In addition, greetings in unofficial situations are not limited to activity-specific expressions, i.e., lexical items and phrases that are exclusively reserved for greetings, such as "hi"; (Duranti, 1997, p. 67). Often, expressions can also be used during other types of speech activities. Examples in German are phrases such as *Na, lange nicht gesehen* ("It's been a while"), or *Gibt's was Neues*? ("What's new?").

Greetings are often followed by questions that inquire about a person's well-being. Miodek (1994) refers to these as *Befindlichkeitsfragen* (p. 33) and Komes (1987) as secondary greetings. Typical combinations in German are the formal *Guten Tag, wie geht es Ihnen?* ("Hello, how are you 'V'?") or the informal *Hallo, wie geht's?* ("Hello, how are you 'T'?"). Other examples of secondary greetings are surprise questions (*Űberraschungsfragen*; Miodek, p. 34), such as *Was machst du denn hier?* ("What are you doing here?").

The speech act of greeting can also be performed with substitutes (Sacks 1999). A secondary greeting such as "how are you?" may stand by itself to initiate a conversation and, similarly, greetings can be substituted with nominal forms of address. Examples provided in Zifonun (1997) are *Peter, gut, dass ich dich sehe!* ("Peter, good to see you") or *Herr Müller, ich suche Sie dringend!* ("Mr. Müller, I have been looking for you"; p. 923). Such substitutions are particularly common among people who know each other well (e.g., who have frequent contact at the workplace). In first encounters, however, the explicit use of a greeting is considered more polite.

Verbal greetings are accompanied, or at times substituted, by nonverbal elements, such as facial expressions and gestures. The most crucial factor that governs nonverbal behavior is the distance between the interlocutors. Therefore, a distinction is made between ‘distance greetings’ and ‘contact greetings’ (Midoek, 1994; Farenkia, 2002.)

Distance greetings occur when the interlocutors are too far apart to exchange a verbal greeting or to avoid physical contact deliberately. Verbal greetings may then be substituted with waving, eyebrow flashes, smiling, and nodding. Contact greetings involve some kind of physical contact, such as handshakes, hugs, or cheek kisses. Whether or not a greeting involves physical contact between the interlocutors is largely determined by their social status, their level of familiarity and the formality of the situation, but can also be contributed to personality variables and the sex of the interlocutors (Riggio, 1981) [13].

Miodek (1994) selects the following commonly used greetings for his discussion: *Guten Morgen, Guten Tag, Guten Abend, Hi, Hallo, Servus, Grüß dich*, *Moin*, *Grüß, Gott, Grüezi, Wie geht's,* and *Wie geht es Ihnen?* Since the present study focuses on register variation, rather than on dialects, the regional greetings *Servus, Moin, Grüß, Gott,* and *Grüezi* will be excluded from the discussion. Table 2.6 illustrates the selected examples, along with their occurrence (time of day, situational context), and their co-occurrence options with pronominal and nominal forms of address, and lists reduced and diminutive forms, and phonetic variants. Supplementary information obtained from my online data is underlined.

[13] Rules of nonverbal behavior are very complex. Only a few examples are given here. For a detailed discussion see Riggio (1981), Miodek (1994), and Farenkia (2002).

Table 2.6

Sociolinguistic Analysis of Common Greeting Formula

Time-specific Greetings				
Greeting	**Time of day**	**Variants (more to less formal)**	**Situational context / relationship between interlocutors**	**Co-occurrence options** PGF = Primary greeting formula SGF = Secondary greeting formula FN = First name LN = Last name T = Title OT = Optional title R/F = Role/ function
Guten Morgen (“good morning/ hello”)	morning until ~11 a.m.	*N’ Morgen* *Morgen*	commonly used in official and unofficial situations; reduced forms occur when higher level of familiarity between interlocutors	PGF + FN e.g., *Guten Morgen, Monika!* (“Good morning, Monika.”)
Guten Tag (“good day”)	~11 a.m. until evening	*Tach* *Tachchen*	most widely used greeting formula in official situations; portrays a neutral relationship between interlocutors; reduced forms occur in more familiar settings	PGF + T + LN e.g., *Guten Tag, Frau Heinz!* (“Hello, Ms Heinz.”) PGF+ OT + LN e.g., *Guten Tag, Professor Niemeyer!* (“Hello, Professor Niemeyer.”)
Guten Abend (“good evening”)	evening; ~ 6 p.m.	*N’Abend* *Abend*	used in official situations portrays neutral relationship; more frequently used by older generation; reduced forms occur in more familiar settings	PGF + T + OT e.g., *Guten Abend, Herr Professor!* (“Good evening, Mr. Professor.”)

Table 2.6 (continued)

Non-time-specific greetings				
Greeting	**Time of day**	**Variants**	**Situational context**	**Co-occurrence options**
Hi	non- time-specific		very casual greeting typically employed by the younger generation	PGF + FN e.g., *Hi, Paul!* ("Hi, Paul.")
Hallo	non-time-specific	*Hallihallo* *Hallöchen*	most neutral greeting for unofficial situations; traditionally used by younger generation, in the family context, and among friends*;* is becoming more acceptable in official situations as well; can also be used in combination with the V version of address forms	PGF + FN e.g. *Hallo, Monika!* ("Hello, Monica.") PGF + OT + LN e.g., *Hallo, Professor Burgschmidt* ("Hello, Professor Burgschmidt.") PGF + SGF ('V') e.g., *Hallo, wie geht es Ihnen?* ("Hello, how are you"?)
Grüß dich	non-time-specific	*Sei gegrüßt*	In familiar settings between friends, acquaintances; independent of age	PGF + FN ('T') e.g., *Grüß dich, Paul!* ("Hello, Paul.") PGF + R/F ('T') e.g., *Grüß dich, Kollege!* ("Hello, colleague.")

Table 2.6 (continued)

Secondary Greetings				
Wie geht's?	non-time-specific	*Wie läuft's?* *Na, wie?* *Geht's gut?* *Wie geht's, wie steht's?*	informal variants more likely among people who know each other well	SGF + FN ('T') e.g., *Wie geht's, Peter?* ("How are you, Peter?")
Wie geht es Ihnen?	non-time-specific		formal	SGF + T + LN ('V') e.g., *Wie geht es Ihnen, Herr Neumann?* ("How are you, Mr. Neumann?") SGF + T + R/F ('V') e.g. *Wie geht es Ihnen, Herr Direktor?* ("How are you, Mr. director?")

2.4.2 Forms of Address in L2 German Teaching Materials

As the above discussion has shown, address usage in contemporary German is characterized by substantial variation and "marked by fluctuation and insecurity" (Clyne et al., 2006, p. 293). The following section summarizes how a learning target that exhibits a great extent of variation in L1 usage has been portrayed in L2 teaching materials, and assesses its adequacy. So far, only two studies have been conducted: Sacia (2009) and Miodek (1996).

Sacia (2009) reviewed the treatment of address pronouns in eight L2 German textbooks and 15 dictionaries. Her findings suggest that L2 materials do not provide sufficient information for all address forms, and that the labels used to describe them are at times misleading. For instance, many materials used the term "polite" as opposed to "formal" when discussing the use of *Sie*. This, according to Sacia can be "misleading to language learners, since the use of *Sie* can also be rude when used as an explicit display of distance among people who normally should be on intimate terms" (p. 69). Another instance of inadequate labeling is to refer to *Sie* as the "unmarked" form. This description of the use of *Sie* is incomplete since it can also constitute the marked form in situations that DeLisle's (1986) labeled "A2"for labeling the outsider, signaling nonsolidarity and social distance (see discussion above).

In his review of the four most widely used textbooks of L2 German in Poland, Miodek (1996) makes the following observation with regards to greetings: in three out of the four textbooks, learners are only introduced to time-specific standard greeting formulas with the exception of *Hallo.* One textbook also introduces the reduced forms *Tag* and *Morgen*. Findings from questionnaires, on the other hand, show that native speakers use a wider repertoire than is made available to L2 learners. For instance, the standard formula *Guten Tag*, *Guten Morgen* und *Guten Abend* are used as frequently as *Hallo, Grüß dich, Morgen*, and *Tag*.

The findings from the two studies suggest that foreign language learners are introduced to only a subset of forms of address and much less variety than occurs in native speech.[14] Even though a careful selection from the complex system of address forms is a necessary step in L2 material development, oversimplification could prevent learners from developing sensitivity towards sociolinguistic variation.

2.5 Interlanguage Pragmatics

The ability to adjust one's speech style to a given situational context as well as to employ stylistic shifts creatively in order to accomplish one's communicative goals presupposes knowledge of social norms and values of the target language. Central questions for the second learning context are: How can this knowledge be developed in a language other than one's own? What role does formal instruction play? And, what type of instruction works best? These questions are investigated in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics.

2.5.1 Defining the Field of ILP

Kasper and Rose (1999) describe the role of pragmatics in SLA as twofold: "It acts as a constraint on linguistic forms and their acquisition, and it represents a type of knowledge and object of L2 learning in its own right" (p. 81). The first sense of

[14]Reviews of textbooks alone are of course limited since they do not necessarily provide insight into what learners are actually exposed to in the classroom (instructors often design supplementary materials and/or make use of authentic materials). Therefore, classroom-based studies are most likely a more reliable measure.

pragmatics is represented in functionalist (Tomlin, 1990[15]) and interactionist (Long, 1996) approaches to SLA, the second in the field of interlanguage pragmatics, which is positioned alongside other domains of SLA (e.g., morphosyntax, lexis, phonology). More specifically, ILP concerns itself with "learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability" (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p. 3). Within a definition of pragmatics as "the study of communicative action" (p. 2), pragmatic ability can be understood as the ability to use language appropriately according to the communicative situation. This ability presupposes a learner's knowledge of both the available linguistic resources (pragmalinguistic features), as well as the sociopragmatic norms that govern the appropriate use of the available resources in communicative situations.

2.5.2 Types of ILP Research Studies

Studies conducted in the field of ILP can be divided into two types: studies on L2 pragmatic use and studies on L2 pragmatic development. Whereas the majority of earlier studies focused on pragmatic use, the emphasis of more recent research has been on pragmatic development. Pragmatic use studies typically investigate the use of pragmatic universals or pragmatic transfer at a given point in time (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 235).

Developmental studies are either cross-sectional or longitudinal. Most cross-sectional studies focus on the production of one or more speech acts and are conducted by means of elicited data. Only a few, however, examine learners' metapragmatic assessment, pragmatic comprehension, or pragmatic awareness of speech acts. Longitudinal studies, on the other hand, are much broader in scope, and investigate not only speech acts, but also pragmatic routines, discourse markers, conversational

---

[15]Tomlin (1990) states, "a general premise of FAs (functional approaches) is that the acquisition of language arises from general circumstances of use and communicative interaction" (p. 161).

management, and overall pragmatic fluency (for an overview of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, see Kasper & Rose, 1999, pp. 82-84, 91).

ILP studies furthermore span research conducted within and outside the classroom setting. Classroom-based studies, which at this point make up the smallest body of research, can be divided into observation and interventions studies. Observation studies, according to Kasper and Rose (2002), document how pragmatic ability in L2 learners develops as a result of their "exposure to input and production of output through classroom use of the target language even when pragmatics is not an intended target" (p. 237). Conversely, intervention studies are "the result of planned pedagogic action directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics" (p. 237).

2.5.3 Development of L2 Pragmatic Knowledge

One central question in the field of ILP is how pragmatic knowledge develops in a second language. This question entails whether pragmatic knowledge is acquired incidentally along with grammatical and lexical knowledge or whether it actually needs to be taught explicitly. According to Kasper (1997), "adult NNS do get a considerable amount of L2 pragmatic knowledge for free" (p. 2), either because it is universal or because it can successfully be transferred from the learner's L1. For instance, empirical research on cross-cultural pragmatic use shows that learners from different L1 backgrounds have the ability to successfully vary their request strategies according to context, e.g., they make use of direct and indirect requests, as in *could you feed the cat* compared to *the cat is complaining*, provided that they have acquired the necessary linguistic forms (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). Positive pragmatic transfer of pragmalinguistic features can occur in cases of corresponding form-function mappings between a learner's native and target languages. Examples are the English modals *could* and *would* and their equivalents in other Germanic languages, such as Danish (*kunne/ville*) and German (*könntest/würdest*), which can be used in corresponding contexts without changing the communicative effect. Studies by House and Kasper (1987) and Færch and Kasper (1989) on request realization show that Danish and German learners of English are indeed able to transfer ability questions from their native languages to L2 English without pedagogic intervention. One example for each language is given below:

ENGLISH:	Could/would you lend me your notes?
DANISH:	Kunne/ville du lane mig dine noter?
GERMAN:	Könntest/würdest du mir deine Aufzeichnungen leihen?

Positive transfer of sociopragmatic knowledge, on the other hand, is less likely to occur since L2 sociopragmatic norms are a reflection of the larger social context and are typically specific to the target language and culture. Nevertheless, according to Mir (1995), L2 learners may benefit from their L1 sociopragmatic knowledge if social categorization patterns are largely identical between their L1 and the target language and may only have to make minor adjustments.

Despite the fact that learners are already equipped with a considerable amount of pragmatic knowledge and in some instances are able to apply that knowledge to the L2 context, research shows that in the majority of the cases, learners lack the ability to successfully transfer available knowledge and strategies to new tasks and environments. This even holds true with regard to aspects of pragmatic universals and often results in, for example, under-use of politeness marking, disregard of such context variables as social distance and power, and literal interpretation of utterances (Kasper, 1997; Rose &

Kasper, 2001). One such example stems from Bouton's (1988) cross-cultural study of the ability to interpret implicatures in English. This study involves a large sample of advanced ESL learners and compared their interpretations of different types of indirect responses or implicatures to that of native speakers. The research shows that in 27% of the cases, the two groups understood the responses differently. Four and a half years later, the author retested some of the students and found that their overall comprehension had risen to 90%, but some indirect responses were still misinterpreted. He concludes that certain types of pragmatic features, despite their universal character, cannot be acquired through exposure alone, but might need to be taught explicitly.

Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) offer a possible explanation of why even advanced learners lack the ability to transfer their L1 pragmatic knowledge to the L2. "Pragmatic rules for language use are often subconscious, and even native speakers are often unaware of pragmatic rules until they are broken" (p. 1). Kasper and Rose (2002) come to a similar conclusion: "Pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed despite prolonged exposure" (p. 237).

The empirical evidence from studies of pragmatic use and observation studies show that mere exposure is not sufficient for the development of L2 pragmatic knowledge, and suggest that learners may benefit from some type of instruction. Whether or not L2 pragmatic forms and functions are teachable, and what types of instruction are most beneficial for L2 pragmatic development has been investigated in a variety of classroom-based interventionist studies. Relevant research will be discussed in Section 2.5.5.

The following section discusses SLA theories that have informed interventional studies in instructed pragmatics learning. According to Rose and Kasper (2001), “the theoretical orientation seen in interventionist research has undergone a change” (p. 50). Whereas early interventionist studies of pragmatic learning were mostly motivated by pragmatic theory and research, or approaches to language teaching, more recent research is largely grounded in current SLA theories. Relevant theories are the three interrelated hypotheses: Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993, 1995), Swain’s output hypothesis (Swain, 1996), and Long’s interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996).

2.5.4 Relevant SLA Theories

Kasper (1996) argues that the following three conditions are necessary for L2 pragmatic acquisition to take place: “There must be pertinent input, the input has to be noticed, and learners need ample opportunity to develop a high level of control” (p. 148). Kasper’s conditions of L2 pragmatic development address several important issues in second language acquisition theory, among them the role of comprehensible input and output, the role of noticing, and the role of practice.

It is widely agreed upon in the field of SLA that input is necessary for L2 acquisition to take place. Gass (1997), in the opening lines of her book “Input, interaction and the second language learner” states:

> The concept of input is perhaps the single most important concept of second language acquisition. It is trivial to point out that no individual can learn a second language without input of some sort. In fact, no model of second language acquisition does not avail itself of input in trying to explain how learners create second language grammars. (p. 1)

No theory of SLA denies the importance of input, but different theories do vary with respect to the role of input, as well as its relationship to other factors involved in the acquisition process. Krashen's (1982) widely known 'input hypothesis' states that comprehensible input is essential for second language acquisition to take place. According to this hypothesis, learners acquire the L2 only if they are exposed to sufficient comprehensible input in the L2. Ideally, L2 learners should be provided with input that is slightly above their current competence level (*i* + 1) but that is still understandable. Krashen's input hypothesis has been challenged by numerous researchers, among them Swain (1985, 1995), Long (1996), and Schmidt (1993, 1995) all of who acknowledge the importance of input in L2 acquisition but claim that input alone is not sufficient.

In her 'output hypothesis,' Swain (1985, 1995) claims that not only comprehensible input but also comprehensible output plays a significant role in L2 acquisition. She states that by producing output, learners move beyond focusing on meaning (as needed during comprehension) to employing syntactic rules. When producing output, learners furthermore can develop automaticity. Through practice, language production becomes more routinized and requires less effort on the part of the learner. This will eventually result in a higher degree of fluency. In addition, production provides learners with an opportunity to test out hypotheses they derived from the input.

Researchers working within an input/interaction approach argue that through engaging in conversational interaction, participants negotiate meaning, making conversation more than just "a medium of practice" for the L2 learner (Gass 2003, p. 234). This is best expressed in Long's (1996) 'interaction hypothesis':

> Negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutors, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learners capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways. (pp. 451-452)

During negotiation of meaning, the learner's attention is drawn to the discrepancy between his/her nontarget-like version of a particular linguistic feature and the correct version as supplied by a native speaker or a more advanced interlocutor. This has been referred to as "noticing the gap" (Schmidt & Frota, 1986).

Schmidt's (1993) 'noticing hypothesis' states that in order for input (what the learner is exposed to) to become intake (what the learner notices in the input), learners have to be aware of or notice particular features in the input such as "linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features" (Schmidt 1993, p. 35). In his later work, Schmidt (1995) furthermore distinguishes between two levels of awareness, namely mere *noticing* and *understanding*. First, a learner notices certain features in the input. Understanding then takes place when a learner recognizes "a general principle, rule, or pattern" (p. 30) in the perceived input. This distinction is illustrated in the citation below (Schmidt, 1995):

> In morphology, awareness that a target language speakers says, on a particular occasion, "He goes to the beach a lot, " is a matter of noticing. Being aware that goes is a form of go inflected for number agreement is understanding.
> In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says to their interlocutor something like, "I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?" is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic development in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matters of understanding. (p. 30)

What are the implications of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis for L2 teaching? A central issue is how teachers can lead learners to acquire important information from the incoming stream of information, or in other words, how teachers can help learners to derive intake from input. One way of drawing learners' attention to particular features in the input that are often not noticed unless specifically pointed out is by using a 'direct approach,' a pedagogical approach that utilizes consciousness-raising activities[16] (Schmidt, 1993). "In consciousness-raising activities the learners are not expected to produce a target structure, but only to understand it by formulating some kind of cognitive representation of how it works" (Ellis 1994, p. 643). Thus, "consciousness-raising is aimed at developing explicit knowledge" and is based on the rationale that "learners who possess explicit knowledge of target-language features may be more likely to notice theses features in natural input" (p. 644). How consciousness-raising activities can be applied to the teaching of address forms will be addressed in Section 3.3. The following section discusses important empirical findings of the role of instruction in L2 pragmatics.

2.5.5 Interventional Studies of Instructed Pragmatic Learning

Interventional research studies in L2 pragmatics that have been conducted so far fall within three main categories: (i) studies that investigate the teachability of the targeted pragmatic feature, (ii) studies that compare instruction versus exposure, and (iii) studies that investigate the differential effects of a variety of teaching approaches (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 249). An overview of selected studies is provided in Table 2.7.

2.5.5.1 Teachability studies. Teachability studies seek to answer the question of whether the acquisition of the targeted features can actually benefit from instruction. Studies of this type usually follow the one-group pretest-posttest design and adopt an explicit approach. One such study was conducted by Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) who investigated the effects of awareness-raising techniques on the acquisition of a single discourse rule, namely responding to the question *T'as passé un bon week-end?* ("Did

[16] The terms "consciousness-raising" and "awareness-raising" are used interchangeably in the literature. In the context of the present study, the preferred term is "awareness-raising," as employed by Ishihara (2007).

Table 2.7

Types of Interventioanl Studies in ILP (based on Kasper & Rose, 2002, pp. 249-270)

Type of Study	**Research Design**	**Rationale**	**Question asked**	**Studies discussed**
Teachability	One group Pretest/ Posttest	To test whether the acquisition of the targeted feature can be effected by explicit instruction at all	Is the targeted pragmatic feature teachable at all?	Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) Olshtain and Cohen, (1990) Wildner-Bassett (1994)
Instruction versus exposure	Quasi-experimental Two groups: one experimental and one control group Pretest/ Posttest	To test whether explicit instruction of the targeted feature is more effective than mere exposure (i.e., the target language input in the control group is not manipulated in any planned fashion)	Is instruction in the targeted features more effective than no instruction?	Lyster (1994)
Differential effects of teaching approaches	Three groups (or more): two (or more) experimental groups and one control group	To compare whether one type of instruction is more effective than another	Are different teaching approaches differentially effective?	Rose and Kwai-Fun (2001)

you have a good weekend") by 10 Australian second year university students of French.

According to the authors, the rationale for the study was based on the observation that discourse rules are often ritualized at different degrees across languages. Whereas French native speakers tend to respond with a description of the state of their well being, native speakers of English treat the question as a ritualized greeting that does not require an elaborated response. Thus, "what may appear to be identical utterances in two languages may actually have very different pragmatic and cultural meanings, and that this in turn affects the way in which language is used in such events" (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, p. 144).

The instructional treatment used in this study consisted of four phases: awareness raising, experimentation, production, and feedback. During the first step of the awareness-raising phase the learners were asked to come up with a short list of stereotypes they associated with both their native language culture and the target language culture. The brainstorming activity led into a discussion about stereotypes, and concluded in the observation that "stereotyping often stems from misunderstanding the different cultural norms speakers use in different countries to communicate with each other" (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, p. 135). The instructor then pointed out that one such instance of cross-cultural miscommunication are the responses typically provided to the question "Did you have a good weekend" in French versus Anglo-Australian cultures. In a next step, the instructor asked the learners to brainstorm possible answers to the question in an Australian context, and then contrasted it to the typical answers provided in French. Afterward, the instructor read excerpts that had been obtained from a previously conducted study (Beal, 1992) and consisted of Australians' comments on the

French. During the third and final step of the awareness-raising phase, the learners were provided with a table that contrasted the different cultural norms of French and Anglo-Australian speakers in their answering of the question “Did you have a good weekend?”

During the experimentation phase, the learners engaged in a reconstructing task. This task consisted of a video-taped French native speaker dialogue that had been cut into several segments and put into random order. The goal of the experimentation phase was “to recognize the norms of interaction which had been brought to their attention during the awareness-raising phase” (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, p. 137).

The production phase provided the learners with an opportunity to practice using the appropriate French norms in the context of a role-play that was acted out and video-taped.

The production phase was followed by the feedback phase, during which the learners watched their own role-plays and engaged in a class discussion about the appropriateness of their performances, and what it felt like to “act French.” The researchers summarized the outcome of the discussion in the following words: “The discussion led to the understanding that learning to speak in a foreign language is not a matter of simply adopting foreign norms of behavior, but about finding an acceptable accommodation between one’s first culture and the target culture” (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, p. 138).

The study revealed different findings for immediate and delayed learner performances. Immediate results of the study showed that right after the pedagogical intervention, learners’ responses were more native-like with respect to both structure and content. With regard to the content of their answers, they successfully included into their answers elements that reflected a "nonformulaic interpretation of the question" (p. 138), a typical feature of French. With regard to the structure of their responses, some but not all learners successfully integrated features typical of French, such as the use of feedback tokens, repetition, and overlapping talk. Delayed results obtained 1 year after the intervention, on the other hand, only revealed positive results for the content, but not the form of the responses provided by the students. In fact, features of form found in student dialogues during the delayed test showed resemblance of the language behavior found prior to the pedagogical intervention.

Based on their findings, the researchers came to the conclusion that it is indeed possible to teach interactional norms in the classroom context, even within the restrictions of a short program. However, differential findings for language content and language form suggest that not all elements of discourse are learned in the same manner. They conclude:

> Perhaps these more macro-level aspects of cultural variability [i.e., elements related to content of talk] are more amenable to instruction because the impact of noticing can be more readily integrated into talk. It could be argued that these cultural elements are more amenable to conscious control; that is, speakers have greater control over aspects of language use such as topic selection and information content than they do over aspects of language form. (p. 143)

According to the authors, their study furthermore showed that awareness-raising techniques targeting conversational style and content can bring about changes in learners' language use, particularly with regard to those aspects of language that involve cultural expectations of the target-language group.

Contrary findings stem from Olshtain and Cohen's (1991) study on the effects of instruction on aspects of apologizing. In their study, they tested the impact of a pedagogical intervention on the following elements: choice of semantic formula (e.g., *I'm* *sorry, I regret*), appropriate length of realization patterns (e.g., *I'm terribly sorry; I completely forgot* versus the structurally simple *I'm sorry*), use of intensifiers (e.g., *really, very, terribly*), and judgment of appropriacy and learners' preferences for particular instructional techniques (p. 45).

The study consisted of a pretest, the instructional treatment, and a posttest. The intervention was conducted in three 20-minutes sessions and involved 18 advanced learners of English whose native language was Hebrew. Instruction followed an explicit approach, which incorporated an explicit explanation of apology realizations, role-play activities, listening to English native-speaker dialogues, as well as pair and class discussions regarding the appropriacy of apology realizations in given situations.

The pre- and posttests were comprised of several discourse completion and rating tasks. The discourse completing tasks consisted of hypothetical situations (e.g., "You are running to catch a bus. You unintentionally bump into an older woman causing her to drop some packages"; Olshtain & Cohen, 1991, p. 59). The learners had to assume the role of the speaker and write down what they think they would say in the particular situations. For the rating task, learners received descriptions of a scenario and several apology strategies and had to determine the level of appropriateness for the various apology strategies, ranging from "acceptable," "more or less acceptable," to "not acceptable." An example is provided below (p. 63):

Context:	A student forgets to return a book to the professor
Apology strategies:	a. ______ I'm terribly sorry. I forgot it.
	b. ______ Oh damn! I forgot it.
	c. ______ Sorry, I forgot.
	d. ______ Oh, I'm very sorry. I completely forgot.
	e. ______ I'm really sorry but I forgot to bring it.

Posttest results obtained from the discourse completion task revealed that the pedagogical intervention had an impact on frequency, but not the variety of apology strategies employed by the learners. However, the rating task showed that learners' appropriacy ratings (which were compared to baseline data obtained from native speakers of English) did not change subsequent to the intervention, implying a lack of sociopragmatic knowledge on the part of the learners. The authors concluded that explicit instruction had a positive effect on the learning of pragmalinguistic features but did not affect learners' knowledge of sociopragmatics.

Yet another teachability study was conducted by Wildner-Bassett (1994) with American beginning-level learners of German. The instructional target chosen for this study was a range of routine formulas and conversational strategies that serve the following functions: 1) giving listener feedback, 2) taking the initiative in a conversation or discussion (e.g., *ich möchte dich um einen Gefallen bitten,* 'I would like to ask you a favor'), 3) interrupting, 4) asking for clarification (e.g., *wie bitte, nochmal einmal, bitte, ich verstehe dich nicht*, 'pardon me,' 'say it again, please,' 'pardon,' 'I don't understand') 5) stating an opinion, 6) keeping the floor (e.g., *also, und so, und so weiter, und sowas alle*s, 'well,' 'and so on,' 'etcetera,' 'and such'), 7) expressing surprise or sympathy (e.g., *das tut mir leid, das ist hart,* 'I am sorry to hear that,' 'that's tough'; p. 7).[17]

The intervention was conducted in first- and second-semester German classes and followed a deductive approach to the teaching of pragmatics. Learners were first introduced to a range of new routine formulas and production strategies, and then practiced them in various small group and partner activities in a relaxed and playful environment. The goal of the intervention was twofold, namely to raise the learners'

[17] Only a few examples are given in the publication.

sensitivity to the appropriateness of routines in given situations, and to expand their active repertoire of routines and strategies.

Data were collected by means of a pre- and posttest. The tests consisted of two test tasks: (i) students had to fill out questionnaires in which they were required to provide appropriate responses to a range of interactional situations, and (ii) students had to engage in actual conversation with German native speakers, during which they were video-taped.

The study revealed the following findings: there was an overall increase in both the appropriateness and amount of routine use, as well as increased sensitivity to interactional demands as required by a particular situation.

The findings of the study suggest that routine formulas and conversation strategies can successfully be taught to beginning level learners following a deductive approach. The author states, “an important factor is that no real analysis of the form be undertaken, but that an increased sensitivity for the function, in comparison to and contrast with L1 routines, be promoted by situational and cyclically reinforced practice” (Wildner-Bassett, 1994, p. 7).

<u>2.5.5.2 Instruction versus exposure studies.</u> The second type of interventionist studies deals with the issue of the effectiveness of instruction of L2 pragmatics compared to mere exposure to input. Since exposure to input is limited in foreign language contexts, ‘exposure’ here refers to “the target language input in a classroom that is not organized so as to promote the learning of pragmatics in any planned fashion” (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 250). Methodologically, studies of this type are typically modeled after a quasi-experimental research design and consist of a two-group pretest-posttest design where the

two groups are already intact classes. Kasper (2002) states, “Instruction versus exposure studies need to include an experimental group receiving instruction in the target pragmatic features and a control group that does not” (p. 250).

Instruction versus exposure studies typically adopt an explicit approach and are directed at testing the role of awareness in the teaching of L2 pragmatics. Kasper and Rose (2002) state:

> These studies provide a direct means of testing Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis: the extent to which instruction that serves to draw learners’ attention to the targeted feature proves to me more beneficial than simple exposure to the target language is the degree to which the noticing hypothesis is supported. (p. 255)

One such example is Lyster’s (1994) study on the effect of instruction on the development of aspects of learners’ sociolinguistic competence. This study was conducted with Canadian students whose native language was English and who were at the time of the intervention enrolled in three different eighth-grade classes of a French immersion program. Due to their emphasis on teaching language through content, immersion programs are considered to be “exemplary contexts of communicative language teaching” (Lyster, 1994, p. 264). Immersion students are extensively exposed to comprehensible input in the L2, which has been found to lead to subject matter achievement equivalent to monolingual programs. Their proficiency level in the L2, though, remains limited (Harley, Cummins, Swain, & Allen, 1990). This is particularly true with regard to functional competence, which Auger (2002) defines as “the ability to use the target language in various settings and to communicate successfully with diverse interlocutors” (p. 80). Even students who have graduated from immersion programs report difficulties in successfully communicating with Francophones in Montreal.

Possible reasons for this might be the discrepancy between the French taught in school and the French used in real-life settings. In the instructional setting, students are generally not taught forms of colloquial French. This limits their opportunities to engage in meaningful conversations with French native speakers their age about non-school-related topics. The immersion context seems to only provide students with a variety of French that is appropriate for formal functions such as addressing one's teacher or parent, but does not expose them to sociostylistic variation of the target language.

Lyster's (1994) pedagogical intervention was conducted for an average of 12 hours, distributed over a 5-week period and implemented a functional-analytic teaching approach to the teaching of sociostylistic variation, with a focus on variations in pronoun use (familiar *tu* vs. formal *vous*). Such an approach involves a combination of explicit teaching and the study and practice of language functions and sociolinguistic features; "[it] focuses on discourse features of language and involves equal reference to language as a medium and language as communication" (p. 265). The treatment materials consisted of a variety of activities, including explicit techniques (e.g., comparisons of various speech acts in formal and informal contexts), role-play in face-to-face interactions, exercises with a focus on forms (e.g., exercises that stressed verb inflections resulting from the use of *tu* or *vous*), writing activities, intensive reading activities targeting the use of *tu* or *vous* in scripted dialogues, and cooperative learning activities (p. 269).

Prior to the treatment, the researcher conducted a teacher workshop during which he explained to the participating instructors of the experimental groups what precisely the treatment consisted of. During the treatment, all classes were observed to ensure that a) the treatment was executed correctly in the experimental groups, and b) instruction in the control groups contained no focus on the learning target, be it explicit or implicit.

Student performance was measured by means of a pretest, an immediate posttest, and a delayed posttest. The tests consisted of three components: (i) an oral production task (students had to respond to a variety of situations pretending they were addressing an interlocutor shown to them on slides), (b) a written production task (the writing of an informal note and a formal letter), and c) a multiple choice task (students had to choose from three possible utterances the one that best fit certain situations presented to them in writing).

The findings of the posttest indicated that members of the experimental group significantly increased their ability in oral and written production to use the formal pronoun *vous* appropriately and accurately in formal situations, as well as their ability to identify contextually appropriate French. Results from the delayed posttest, however, showed that not all learners maintained their level of achievement with regard to the use of conditionals in formal letter writing. The author concludes that explicit attention to sociolinguistic features may be limited to structurally simple elements.

Kasper and Rose’s (2002) review of other interventionist studies of this type shows that “without exception, learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed those who did not” (p. 256). They furthermore point out that while instruction resulted in significantly better results than exposure, learners in the control groups also showed noticeable improvement as long as they were able to use the targeted features outside the classroom.

2.5.5.3 Differential effects studies. The third type of interventionist studies compares the effects of explicit versus implicit instruction on the development of pragmatic competence and is typically comprised of two or more experimental groups, and a control group. For example, Rose and Kwai-Fun (2001) conducted a study in which they examined whether inductive and deductive approaches to the teaching of compliments and compliment responses reveal different effects. Their participants were advanced-level students of English in the Faculty of Business at the City University of Hong Kong. The students were randomly divided into three groups: an inductive, a deductive, and a control group. The instruction of the inductive group contained no metapragmatic information. Rather, the learners were exposed to films segments and additional examples of compliments and compliment responses as found in the speech of English native speakers. They were then provided with questions to guide their own discovery of the pragmatic patterns. The deductive group, on the other hand, obtained the metapragmatic information prior to being exposed to the data.

Student performance was collected by means of three data collection instruments, self-assessment questionnaires, a written discourse completion questionnaire, and a metapragmatic assessment questionnaire. All three questionnaires contained the same 18 compliment scenarios. In the self-assessment task, a number of situations were presented to the learners; the learners then had to indicate to what extent they believed they would be able to provide an appropriate response in that particular situation. To illustrate, a sample is provided below (Rose & Kwai-Fun, 2001, p. 152):

> You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by Mrs. White (the mother). You compliment her on the meal.
>
> Rating: I think what I would say in this situation would be:
> very satisfactory 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 completely inappropriate

The written discourse completion task was modeled after the traditional discourse completion task format used in many pragmatic studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), with the addition that students were asked to provide two conversational turns. An example is presented below (p. 153-154):

> You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by Mrs. White (the mother). What would you say to compliment her on the meal? How do you think she would respond?
>
> You:
>
> ____
> ____
> ____
>
> Mrs. White:
>
> ____
> ____
> ____

The metapragmatic assessment task was administered last since it contained a range of possible answers from which the students had to select. An example is given below (p. 153):

> You have just finished having dinner at home that was prepared by Mrs. White (the mother).
> You: “That was really delicious, Mrs. White.”
> Mrs. White: ___ (a) No response
> ___ (b) “I thought the chicken was too dry.”
> ___ (c) “Thanks – I’m glad you liked it.”
> ___ (d) “Sue helped quite a bit, you know.”

The results obtained from the posttest showed that both instructional approaches could lead to positive gains in pragmalinguistic information but only deductive instruction seemed to be effective for the development of sociopragmatic proficiency. In fact, the inductive approach had a negative impact on sociopragmatic proficiency, since it raised complicated sociocultural issues that remained unresolved. The study shows that a deductive approach to the teaching of pragmatics may have more beneficial results on students' development.

2.5.5.4 Summary of research findings and limitations. The studies discussed above provide important insights into the effects of instruction on the pragmatic development of L2 learners. The first group of studies ("teachability ") indicates that certain aspects of L2 pragmatics are teachable; the second type of studies ("instruction versus exposure") shows that instruction exceeds exposure, and the third group of studies ("differential effects") reveals that certain aspects of pragmatics can be acquired more easily when taught explicitly (as opposed to implicitly), and thus provide considerable support for Schmidt's noticing hypothesis. In other words, studies investigating differential effects of teaching approaches clearly indicate that the provision of metapragmatic information (as provided in explicit teaching) is beneficial for L2 pragmatic learning (Kasper & Rose, 2002). This was particularly the case for activities following a deductive approach (e.g., in the study by Rose & Kwai-Fun, 2001).

The studies conducted by Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) and Olshtain and Cohen's (1991) produced mixed results for the teaching of routines formulas and apology realizations. Whereas the learners in the first study seemed to handle sociopragmatic aspects of the instructional target more successfully than pragmalinguistic features, the learners in the second study performed better with regard to pragmalinguistic aspects. These findings could simply result from the differences in the instructional treatment (with regard to both length of treatment and instructional approach), and/or the different data collection instruments that were employed; but they could also indicate that not all pragmatic elements seem to be equally learned and that, depending on the targeted feature, some aspects seem to lend themselves more readily to conscious control than others. However, more research is needed in order to obtain a clearer picture of what aspects of pragmatic are learned more easily, be it sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic. This is particularly true for sociolinguistic learning targets since the majority of studies so far have focused on routines formulas, conversation strategies, or the learning of particular speech acts.

Wilder-Bassinett's (1994) study provided insight into the development of pragmatic competence of beginning level learners. Her findings suggest that certain unanalyzed chunks and routines are indeed teachable to learners at the beginning level. Another study that investigated the learning of pragmatic routines of beginning-level learners found that explicit instruction was more beneficial than implicit instruction for students' performance in role-plays (Tateyama et al., 1997). Since only two interventional studies have been conducted so far that provide insight into early language learning, there is a clear need for more research in order to find out whether these findings are consistent. It would also be interesting to see whether beginning learners only benefit from instruction when taught routine formulas or whether other (more complex, analyzable) learning targets are also teachable.

In addition, Kasper and Rose (2002) call for more carefully designed studies. At this point, according to the authors, the majority of studies do not use control groups (this is largely for practical reasons). They state, "conducting research without a control group produces less conclusive findings because there is always the possibility that any observed effects might not have resulted from the treatment(s)" (p. 270).

Another important aspect that only few of the studies have considered so far (e.g., Lyster, 1994) is to document what happens in the classroom in both the experimental and the control groups during the time of the treatment. However, classroom observation is crucial to ensure that the treatment is actually implemented, and in studies of the instruction versus exposure type, that instruction in the control group is not manipulated in any fashion with regard to the teaching of pragmatics.

Also, video- or audiotapes of instructional practices could provide insight into the learning process, another aspect that is largely ignored in studies that have been conducted so far. There is furthermore a clear need for introspective studies in order to gain insight into learning processes. Tateyama (2001) states:

> Assessment of learner performance in the target language tends to adopt an exclusive orientation to produce, and in doing so neglects process. Although it is time-consuming to administer verbal reports sessions, they provide valuable information regarding learners' planning and thought processes, which can help teacher better understand why the learner made a particular error. (p. 221)

2.6 Research Questions and Hypotheses

It is the goal of the present study to expand our understanding of the effects of instruction on the development of L2 pragmatics by posing the following main research question:

Does a pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach have a positive effect on the development of beginning level learners' sociopragmatic competence? To answer the main research question, the study will address four subquestions:

Subquestion 1: Do the learners, subsequent to instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms, exhibit a larger degree of familiarity with a range of primary and secondary greetings?

Subquestion 2: Are learners, subsequent to instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms, able to identify a greater amount of contextually appropriate address pronoun(s) for a variety of situations?

Subquestion 3: Does explicit instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms have a positive effect on the learners' ability to assess the appropriateness of forms of address employed in video-based native speaker conversations?

Subquestion 4: Do learners make use of relevant explicit, metapragmatic information when deciding on the appropriateness of these forms of address?

Based on previous research findings on the effects of explicit instruction, I hypothesize that a pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach will have a positive effect on the learners' L2 pragmatic development. The following hypotheses were formulated for each of the subresearch questions:

H1: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group will show familiarity with a greater amount of primary and secondary greetings than the control group participants.

H2: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group will be able to identify a greater amount of contextually appropriate address pronoun(s) for a variety of situations than the control group participants.

H3: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, judgments for the appropriateness of address forms in video-based native speaker conversations performed by the learners in the experimental group, will be more native-like than judgments provided by the control group participants.

H4: Relevant explicit, metapragmatic information will guide the learners in the experimental group when deciding on the appropriateness of these forms of address.

2.7 Summary of Terminology

The previous literature review served to situate the present study in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics and to prompt the research questions. It also provided the following working terms and definitions.

2.7.1 Pragmatic Knowledge

In the Bachman and Palmer (1996) model of language ability, pragmatic knowledge subsumes a prominent position alongside organizational knowledge and is defined as “how utterances and sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting” (p. 68). Sociolinguistic knowledge is a subcomponent of pragmatic knowledge and is defined as the kind of knowledge that “enables us to create or interpret language that is appropriate to a particular language use setting” (p. 70).

It is important to point out that the terminology used in Bachman and Palmer’s framework is slightly different from the terminology in other models of communicative competence. Rather than using the more conventional term, ‘communicative competence,’ they speak of ‘language ability’ as the overarching construct, which is comprised of ‘language knowledge’ (rather than ‘language competence’) and ‘metacognitive strategies’ (rather than ‘strategic competence’). They write:

> The model of language ability that we adopt in this book is essentially that proposed by Bachman (1990), who defines language ability as involving two components: *language competence*, or what we will call *language knowledge* and *strategic competence*, which we will describe as a set of *metacognitive strategies.*

> It is this combination of language knowledge and metacognitive strategies that provides language users with the ability, or capacity, to create and interpret discourse, either in responding to tasks on language tests, or in non-test language use. (p. 68)

However, a review of the Interlanguage Pragmatics literature suggests that the terms ‘competence’, and ‘ability’ are often used interchangeably. This becomes apparent, for instance, in the following excerpt from the introduction to *Pragmatics in Language Teaching* by Rose and Kasper (2001):

> An influential and comprehensive review of communicative competence and related notions was offered by Canale and Swain (1980), who also proposed a widely cited framework of communicative competence for language instruction and testing. While pragmatics does not figure as a term among their three components of communicative competence (grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence), **pragmatic ability** is included under “**sociolinguistic competence**,” called “rules of use.” Canale (1983) expanded the earlier version of the framework by adding discourse competence as a fourth component. A decade after the original framework had been published, Bachman (1990, pp. 87ff.) suggested a model of communicative ability that not only includes pragmatic competence as one of the two main components of “language competence,” parallel to “organizational competence,” but subsumes “sociolinguistic competence” and “illocutionary competence” under **pragmatic competence**. The prominence of **pragmatic ability** has been maintained in a revision of this model by Bachman and Palmer (1996, pp. 66 ff.). (p. 1; highlights added)

Since publications such as the one by Rose and Kasper are most relevant for the present study, the terms will also be used interchangeably in the current paper. Nevertheless, Bachman and Palmer’s (1996) model serves as the main resource to situate the concept of registers among other components of language knowledge.

2.7.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

Lyster (1994) defines sociolinguistic competence as “the ability to recognize and produce contextually appropriate language, including sensitivity to differences in varieties and registers” (p. 266). This definition is particularly useful for the purpose of the present study since it explicitly states that sociolinguistic competence entails both receptive and productive aspects. It furthermore makes direct reference to register variation, the focus of the present investigation.

2.7.3 Register

The ability to employ appropriate forms of address falls within the category of knowledge of registers, a subcategory of sociolinguistic knowledge in Bachman and Palmer's (1996) model. The definition of register adopted for the present study is provided by Biber (1994), who understands register as a general term for "any variety associated with particular situational contexts and purposes" (p. 1).

2.7.4 Sociolinguistic Sensitivity

Sociolinguistic sensitivity, according to Watzinger-Tharp (2008),[18] refers to "the cognitive understanding of the relationship between extralinguistic factors (e.g., setting, age, gender) and variant linguistic features" and constitutes "an initial and fundamental phase of the development of sociolinguistic competence."

2.7.5 Types of Instruction

According to DeKeyser (1995), explicit instruction entails either some kind of rule explanation (deduction) or directs the learners' attention to particular forms, so they can discover the rules for themselves (induction). In contrast, in implicit instruction, the focus is on meaning rather than on forms, where exposure to rich input and meaningful use of the L2 is believed to result in incidental L2 acquisition.

---

[18] Personal communication with Johanna Watzinger-Tharp on Oct. 13, 2008.

2.7.6 Awareness

Awareness is defined as a learner's conscious understanding of what is being learned. Schmidt (1995) distinguishes between two levels of awareness: mere noticing and understanding. First, a learner notices certain features in the input. Understanding then takes place when a learner recognizes "a general principle, rule, or pattern" (p. 30) in the perceived input.

Ishihara (2007) makes a useful distinction between pragmalinguistic awareness and sociopragmatic awareness. Pragmalinguistic awareness refers to "a repertoire of linguistic strategies" and sociopragmatic awareness is defined as "knowing the impact of contextual factors on L2 form and when to apply certain L2 use to the appropriate occasion or understanding the cultural reasoning behind L2 pragmatic norms (p. 22).

2.7.7 Interlanguage Pragmatics /Pragmatic Ability

Rose and Kasper (2001) define Interlanguage Pragmatics as an area of Second Language Acquisition that investigates "learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability" (p. 3). Pragmatic ability is understood as the ability to use language appropriately according to the communicative situation. This ability presupposes a learner's knowledge of both the available linguistic resources (pragmalinguistic features), as well as the sociopragmatic norms that govern the appropriate use of the available resources in communicative situations.

2.7.8 Sociopragmatics / Pragmalinguistics

Pragmatics is defined by Crystal (1997) as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 301).

Pragmalinguistics refers to the linguistic resources a particular language provides for conveying communicative acts, or "the linguistic inventory used to perform pragmatic functions" (Trosborg 1998, p. 239), while sociopragmatics concerns a speaker's knowledge of when or how to employ these resources in social contexts.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of the present empirical study was two-fold: (i) to design and implement a pedagogical intervention for second-semester foreign language learners; and (ii) to assess the efficacy of such an intervention for the development of learners' sociopragmatic competence.

This chapter is divided into two main sections. First, it provides a detailed overview of the research design, including the participants, procedure, data collection instruments, and data analysis (Section 3.2). The second part describes the design and implementation of the pedagogical intervention (Section 3.3).

3.2 Method

3.2.1 Research Design

The research design was modeled after the second type of interventionist studies in ILP research discussed in Section 2.5.5 (Kasper & Rose, 2002). It was quasi-experimental in nature, utilizing a two-group pretest-posttest design without random assignment of participants, due to the fact that the learners were already in intact classes by the beginning of the treatment. Group 1, the experimental group, received classroom instruction "as usual," that is, "without including any elements of the treatment" (Kasper, 2001, p. 58), combined with online instruction in the targeted features outside of class time; group 2, the control group, received only classroom instruction “as usual” but no online instruction in the targeted features. The central research question investigated in the research was whether online instruction in the targeted features is more effective than no instruction in the targeted features. The control group functioned as a means to assess whether the posttreatment effects obtained for the experimental group were indeed the result of the pedagogical intervention.

3.2.2 Participants

The present research study involved three pools of participants: student participants, the course instructors, and German native speaker participants. The pool of student participants consisted of 56 American undergraduate and graduate students. Originally, 68 learners had signed up for the study, but not all of them were able to participate for the following reasons: a) 2 students had spent a considerable amount of time in a German-speaking country and/or had extensive contact with German speakers outside of class; b) 10 students dropped out for unknown reasons. At the time of the research study, the students were enrolled in seven different sections of a second-semester German course at a major university in the Northwest of the United States. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 39; 34 of the participants were female, 24 were male. All of them were native English speakers; some of them had grown up speaking English and an additional language, including Farsi, Hindi, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin Chinese, Spanish, Serbian, Tagalog, and Taiwanese. Most of the participants had never travelled to a German-speaking country and had no contact with German native speakers outside of class. Some of them had been to Austria, Germany, or Switzerland, ranging from just a few days to 1 month to visit friends or relatives, take a vacation, or participate in an exchange program.

The instructors were 7 graduate students enrolled in the Ph.D. program in the German department who also held a part-time teaching position as graduate teaching fellows. Their ages ranged from 24 to 38; 3 of them were females and 4 of them males, and they were German and English native speakers. The German native speakers had all grown up in Germany, and had moved to the United States in order to attend graduate school. All English native speakers had either spent a considerable amount of their lives in a German-speaking country, or had studied German intensively for a long period of time. Since the pedagogical intervention was completely web-based, the course instructors only played a minor role in this intervention study. Prior to the beginning of the treatment, they received an introduction to the content and procedure of the study; throughout the intervention, they stayed in touch with the researcher to ensure that the students did not receive any information in the German course regarding the learning target. The instructors also assisted the researcher in setting up a time to visit their classes for the purpose of student recruitment.

The German native speaker participants consisted of two groups: providers of baseline data, and role-play participants. Group 1, the "baseline data group," consisted of 28 German native speakers who had lived all or most of their lives in a German-speaking country. Their ages roughly corresponded to the ages of the learners, ranging from 20 to 40. The decision to approximately match the ages of the students and baseline data participants was based on the rationale that what is considered appropriate address behavior is to some degree dependent on the age of the individuals providing the judgments. Baseline data was initially collected from 38 German native speakers (NS) who took the same computer-based pretest that was administered to the learner participants. In order to match the number of native speaker participants to the number of each of the learner groups, 28 were randomly selected from the NS pool. The NS were recruited using the snowball effect. The researcher first contacted her friends and colleagues who completed the test and then passed the request on to acquaintances of their own.

Group 2, "the role-play participants," consisted of 12 German native speakers who acted out the roles of university students, instructors, professors, job applicants, and receptionists. Their ages ranged from 20 to 42, and they were all females. The participants were either friends or colleagues of the researcher, and at the time of the recordings were living or temporarily staying in the United States. Regardless, they all had lived in Germany for most of their lives.

3.2.3 Procedure

The 6-week study took place during the fall semester 2009 and the spring semester 2010. It consisted of two phases: a preparatory phase (phase 1) and a data collection phase (phase 2). During the preparatory phase, the German course instructors attended an orientation session during which they obtained information regarding the content and procedure of the intervention, and were asked to inform the researcher in the event that student participants had questions regarding the learning target during the time of the intervention. Since this was not the case in any German course, the course instructors ended up playing only a minor role in this intervention. The preparatory phase furthermore consisted of student recruitment. Student recruitment took place by establishing contact with the German program coordinator, obtaining the instructors' consent to seek their respective students' voluntary participation in the study, and lastly, by visiting each German class and speaking to the students directly. The researcher visited all German courses at the beginning of the semesters during which the intervention took place, and she spent approximately 20 minutes in each class in order to ask for voluntary student participation and have the students sign the necessary consent form.

The data collection phase consisted of several substages. In stage a, the student participants completed a preliminary questionnaire. The purpose of the preliminary questionnaire was to elicit background data about the participants, including their age, their native language background, their language learning experience, the amount of time they had spent abroad, and their exposure to German outside the classroom context (see Appendix B). Based on the information elicited in the questionnaire, the researcher determined whether students could be considered for the purpose of this study. Students who did not fulfill the necessary criteria still participated in the study in order to avoid making them feel excluded from the rest of the class; however, their data did not figure into the data analysis. In order to qualify, students could not have extensive exposure to German outside the classroom setting during the treatment and/or have spent a considerable amount of time (i.e., more than 1 month) in a German-speaking country prior to the treatment.

In stage b of the data collection phase, all student participants completed a web-based pretest, at a computer of their choice and at a time convenient to them. The pretest consisted of three test tasks, a multiple-choice task, a ranking task, and a retrospective comment task.

During stage c, the experimental group participated in a 3-week, web-based treatment, which they received in addition to their regular classroom instruction. The control group did not receive any type of web-based treatment, but only classroom instruction as usual.

In stage d of the data collection phase, all student participants completed a posttest consisting of the same test tasks as the pretest. Table 3.1 sums up the phases, stages, and timeframe of the 6-week empirical study.

3.2.4 Test Tasks

The pre- and posttest consisted of three test tasks, a multiple-choice task, a ranking task, and a retrospective comment task. The test can be viewed via the following link: http://sites.google.com/site/germantests/. The sections below describe each of the tasks in detail.

3.2.4.1 Section 1. Section 1 of the test consisted of a check-the-box task in which students indicated which primary and secondary greetings (primary, i.e., different ways of saying "hello"; secondary, i.e., different ways of asking how someone is doing) they were familiar with. They could also list additional greetings that were not part of the list. The choice of greetings was based on the selection discussed and analyzed in Miodek (1994, 1995; see Section 2.4.1.3 for a detailed discussion), comprised official and unofficial as well as time-specific and non-time-specific greetings, and reflected different levels of formality. The rationale of including the check-the-box task was to present students with a warm-up activity before proceeding to more complex tasks. Since address forms are not covered in the second-semester German course, jumping right into the core of the test appeared too abrupt as students' first encounter with the learning target.

Table 3.1

Timeframe of Empirical Study

Phases/ Stages	**Timeframe**
Preparatory Phase Teacher orientation Student recruitment	Prior to data collection
Data Collection Phase Preliminary questionnaire Pretest Intervention Posttest	 Week 1 Week 2 Weeks 3,4,5 Week 6

Providing them with an introductory task, on the other hand, gave them a chance to become focused on the subject matter.

3.2.4.2 Section 2. Section 2 consisted of a matrix–of-choices task and reviewed the learners' knowledge of the use of the address pronouns *du* and *Sie*. This task contained two parts. In part a, the learners had to decide which address pronoun(s) (i.e., *du*, *Sie* or both) they considered appropriate when talking to one of the following people who they knew well: an immediate family member, a friend, a child, an extended family member (e.g., in-laws), a next-door neighbor, in a service encounter (e.g., cashier in a neighborhood store), a colleague at work, a university student, or a high school student. In task b, the learners had to determine which address pronoun(s) (i.e., *du*, *Sie* or both) they thought of as appropriate when talking to one of the following people whom they had never met before: a stranger (adult) you meet in the street, a stranger (teenager) you meet in the street, a stranger (child) you meet in the street, an extended family member (e.g., in laws), a next-door neighbor, in a service encounter (e.g., cashier in grocery store), a colleague at work, a university student, or a high school student.

This matrix-of-choices was designed based on the discussion of address pronouns provided by DeLisle (1986) and Clyne et al. (2006). The authors make a distinction between (1) situations in which the reciprocal *du* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address, e.g., in the family context or among close friends; (2) situations in which the reciprocal *Sie* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address, e.g., in formal and/ or hierarchical situations, or with strangers; and (3) situations demonstrating the coexistence of two systems, one tending towards unmarked *du*, the other towards unmarked *Sie* (for a detailed discussion see Section 2.4.1.1).

The choice of examples for test section 2, as well as the categorization of the examples into address situation types 1, 2, or 3, was based on the discussion in the L1 sociolinguistics literature (Section 2.4.1.1). The rationale for including section 2 in the pretest was twofold: to further activate learners' background knowledge on address forms and prepare them for test section 3, as well as to obtain some insight into their explicit knowledge of particular address form situations and corresponding address pronoun. This knowledge could possibly be linked to their ability to rank the appropriateness of address behavior in context, as assessed in section 3.

3.2.4.3. Section 3. Section 3 constituted the core of the test and contained four parts. Each part consisted of two discourse rating tasks (DRT) and two retrospective comment tasks (RCT), resulting in a total of 16 tasks. The DRT is commonly used in the field of ILP designed to address pragmatic competence in the classroom (see e.g., Olshtain & Cohen, 1991; Rose & Kwai-Fun, 2001; discussed in Section 2.5.5.1). It can serve as both a teaching and testing tool, aimed “to develop students’ awareness of appropriate second language use” (Lee & McChesney, 2000, p. 161). In a DRT, the learner is asked to rate a variety of possible responses to a particular scenario and dialogue. The RCT falls within the category ‘introspective research,’ which Brown and Rodgers (2002) define as “research using introspective techniques [that] usually sets a task and then asks participants to report on what their brains (or hearts) are processing as they carry out the task” (p. 53). More specifically, in retrospective studies, “the report is subsequent to a given mental task and where information consists of selected foci, descriptions, explanations, and interpretations. Reporting on the route by which you arrived at your present destination would be an example” (p. 56).

For each part of the present test, students watched a short muted video-clip featuring an interaction between two German native speakers. In the DRT, they were then provided with different options of conversation regarding what the people might say to each other. For each option, they had to decide on the level of appropriateness, ranging from inappropriate to somewhat inappropriate, somewhat appropriate, and appropriate. In the RCT, the learners had to provide immediate written feedback on how they had arrived at their rating decisions, or in other words, what had led them to the decision that a particular conversation option was more or less appropriate in a given situation.

The videos stemmed from recordings of open role play, which were designed, acted out and videotaped for the purpose of the test, and were task-based. Choosing open role plays rather than already existing video recordings of native speaker interactions had the following advantages: they could easily be manipulated with regard to the contextual variables (e.g., formality of setting and topic, age, and power of participants) and consequently triggered a particular address behavior; but despite this level of control, they still resulted in authentic and spontaneous speech, an important aspect for the present study that focuses on language as it is actually used. Kasper and Dahl (1991) describe the advantages of using open role plays in the following way: they are only weakly controlled and "involve partially self-directed interaction between the players" (p. 3). The participants receive specific instructions as to their roles, the initial situation as well as the communicative goals to be reached in the interaction, but the outcomes of the conversation are not prescribed, nor are they provided instruction on how such goals can be accomplished. Thus this method allows "examination of speech behavior in its full discourse context" (p. 19) and ensures that the interaction be "real" in the context of the role play since meaning needs to be negotiated. In short, it resembles qualities of authentic verbal interaction and provides a rich data source.

When constructing the DRT, the emphasis was on creating scenarios that were relevant to the students, but also on finding scenarios that would trigger address behavior that falls within the several address behavior types defined by Clyne et al. (2006). The response options either stemmed from the original role play recordings, from an online discourse completion task (DCT), or were made up by the researcher (this was only the case for the inappropriate responses). The DCT was administered by the researcher via the online survey tool *SurveyMonkey* prior to designing the test tasks and was completed by 90 German native speakers who provided written responses to six different scenarios (see Appendix C). A summary of the scenarios, dialogue prompts, and response options included in the test can be found in Appendix D.

The four scenarios for the open role plays contained a variety of contextual variables, some of which were controlled and some of which varied across scenarios. The controlled variables were as follows: all scenarios took place in a formal setting (at a university and language institute), the topic of the conversations was also formal (school or work related), and the level of familiarity between the interlocutors was low (they had seen each other before, but never actually spoken to each other). In addition, all interlocutors were females. The scenarios differed in the following contextual variables: the interlocutors' ages and relative power. They furthermore constituted various types of address situations as defined by Clyne et al. (2006). An overview is provided in Table 3.2.

As a result of the combination of contextual variables and address situation types, different forms of address were appropriate in the conversations. In scenario 1, which fell within address situation type 1 and where age and power of the participants were equal, the informal pronoun *du* (T) in combination with the addressee's first name was the only appropriate reciprocal (i.e., irrelevant of the directionality of the conversation) answer choice, as indicated by the native speaker baseline data. In scenario 2, an instance of address situation type 2, both age and power differences between the interlocutors existed. In this case, the formal pronoun *Sie* in combination with the addressee's last name or last name and optional title was appropriate when the student was addressing the professor; when the professor was responding to the student, the combination of *Sie* with the addressee's last name or first name was appropriate. In scenario 3, another example of address situation type 2 but with no age or power differences, the formal pronoun *Sie* in combination with the addressee's last name was considered the only appropriate option. Again, this held true independent of the directionality of the conversation (when the job

Table 3.2

Variables in Scenarios

	Character Types	**Type of Address Situation**	**Contextual Variables**
Scenario 1	undergraduate student 1 talks to undergraduate student 2 undergraduate student 2 talks to undergraduate student 1	Type 1: situations in which the reciprocal *du* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address	same age equal power same age equal power
Scenario 2	undergraduate student talk to her professor professor talks to undergraduate student	Type 2: situations in which the reciprocal *Sie* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address	different age unequal power different age unequal power
Scenario 3	job applicant talks to receptionist receptionist talks to job applicant	Type 2 situations in which the reciprocal *Sie* is almost undisputedly accepted as the unmarked form of address	same age unequal power unequal power same age
Scenario 4	language instructor 1 talks to language instructor 2 language instructor 2 talks to language instructor 1	Type 3: situations demonstrating the coexistence of two systems, one tending towards unmarked *du*, the other towards unmarked *Sie*	same age equal power same age equal power

interviewee was addressing the receptionist and when the receptionist was addressing the job interviewee). In scenario 4, an instance of address type situation 3, in which the participants were of equal age and power, the address behavior proved to be most complex. The native speaker baseline data showed that a variety of address form options were considered appropriate: option 1: the combination of *Sie* with last name; option 2: the combination of *Sie* with first name; and option 3: the combination of *du* and first name. The appropriate forms of address for each scenario are summed up in Table 3.3.

3.2.5 Data Analysis

The data analysis consisted of a quantitative and a qualitative component. For the quantitative component, the scoring procedure was as follows. Given the variable nature of forms of address, baseline data were collected from a pool of 38 German native speakers (NS). In order to match the number of the NS participants with the number in the two learner groups, 28 participants were then randomly selected to form the baseline data group. For the data analysis, NS data were relevant only for test sections 2 and 3, since test section 1 merely consisted of an estimate of how many greetings students knew at the time of the pre- and posttest. For test sections 2 and 3, the mean value of the NS judgments constituted the native speaker norm against which student data were compared. Thus, student scores were obtained by reporting the difference between each of the judgments received from every participants and the native speaker norm in terms of absolute values. As a result, class scores that were closer to the NS mean represented a better performance on the test than scores that were further from the NS mean.

In order to examine the significance of the different results on the posttest between the two learner groups, a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance

Table 3.3

Forms of Address in Scenarios

	Directionality of Conversation	**Address Forms**
Scenario 1	undergraduate student 1 talks to undergraduate student 2 undergraduate student 2 talks to undergraduate student 1	*du* + first name *du* + first name
Scenario 2	undergraduate student talk to her professor professor talks to undergraduate student	*Sie* + last name *Sie* + optional title + last name *Sie* + last name Sie + first name
Scenario 3	job applicant talks to receptionist receptionist talks to job applicant	*Sie* + last name *Sie* + last name
Scenario 4	language instructor 1 talks to language instructor 2 language instructor 2 talks to language instructor 1	*Sie* + last name *Sie* + first name *du* + first name *Sie* + last name *Sie* + first name *du* + first name

(ANCOVA) was undertaken. Comparisons were made using the posttest scores as the dependent measure and the pretest scores as a covariate in order to 'control' for pre-existing differences between the two groups. The treatment (+/- intervention) was considered a between-subject factor in the analysis of the variables.

The qualitative component of the data analysis consisted of evaluating the retrospective comments obtained from the student participants on how they decided on the level of appropriateness of address forms as employed in the various scenarios in test section 3. Following the method of analysis suggested by Ishihara (2007), the researcher compiled a list of possible explanations derived from the native speaker awareness data and organized them into categories. The learner data were then analyzed for patterns across learners by organizing their retrospective comments to the native speaker categories. For learner comments that did not fall within any of the categories, an ‘other’ category was added to the list. Detailed descriptions of the categories and the awareness data are provided in Chapter 4.

3.3 Pedagogical Intervention

This section outlines the design and implementation of the pedagogical intervention. It first provides information on the participants, the length of the intervention, and communication between the participants and the researcher during the treatment. It then proceeds with a discussion of the underlying methodological principles that governed the design of the instructional materials, and lastly, describes in detail the content, instructional goals, and types of activities of each of the three treatment units.

3.3.1 Participants

The pedagogical intervention involved a control group and an experimental group, each comprised of 28 students. At the time of the intervention, the participants were enrolled in seven different sections of a second-semester German as a foreign language course at a major university in the Northwest of the United States. Participation in the research project was completely voluntary and independent of the regular curriculum. As a result, only some of the students from a particular section signed up for participation in the project. However, all the students from a particular section who decided to participate were assigned to the same group (either the control group or the experimental group), in order to minimize the likelihood that they would communicate any of the learning content to the nonparticipating students.

3.3.2 Length of Intervention

According to Kasper and Rose (2001), interventionalist ILP studies vary greatly in treatment length, ranging from semester-long studies to short single treatments of just 20 minutes (p. 54). What might be considered an appropriate treatment length largely depends on the learning target. For this study, a period of 3 weeks aligned well with the division of the learning content into three separate chapters, one providing necessary background information, one discussing address situations that are rather clear-cut, and one dealing with address situations that are complex and ambiguous. With each participant completing the task outside of class time and on their own schedule over the 3-week period, students gained flexibility and also autonomy. They decided for themselves what would be a suitable time for them to complete a certain unit, and whether they preferred to complete one unit in one sitting or spread out over several days.

3.3.3 Web-based Study

More and more recent instructional materials designed for the purpose of pragmatics teaching and ILP research are web-based (e.g., Cohen & Ishihara, 2005; Yasuhiro, 2007). This format provides material developers with the option to make use of different types of multimedia, including audio, video, and interactivity content forms, and to present pragmatic utterances in a more authentic manner than traditional forms of printed material (Cohen, 2004). In addition, materials become more readily available to language teachers, learners, and researchers, and thus can comfortably be used as supplementary materials in traditional courses, for self-study, or experimental research (Cohen & Ishihara, 2005).

In addition to the advantages discussed above, the web-based approach also proved to be beneficial for the purpose of the present study for a variety of pedagogical and practical reasons. First and foremost, all participants in the experimental group were exposed to exactly the same learning content and were all mentored by the same virtual instructor, the researcher. Second, conducting an intervention in already intact classes as part of the regular course content raises ethical concerns, since student participation would not really be voluntary and the treatment would figure into the course grade. Third, after contacting several program coordinators of German programs at a variety of universities, it became clear that it would be almost impossible to find instructors who would be willing or able to sacrifice their class time for the intervention. Typically, the curricula of beginning-level college language courses are already tight, and instructors are often obliged to cover particular chapters of an assigned textbook. This is particularly the case when the courses are taught by graduate student instructors who are supervised by a program coordinator and who are all required to cover the same content within a given class. Finally, German programs at U.S. universities are often rather small and it would have been difficult to find courses that were large enough to have a suitable sample size. All these challenges could be overcome by conducting the experiment as a web-based study.

3.3.4 Participant-Researcher Communication during Intervention

I fulfilled the function of a ‘virtual instructor,’ similar to the role taken by university instructors who teach online courses. Throughout the course of the intervention, I stayed in constant email contact with the participants in order to assist them with possible questions, provide clarification, but also to keep them on track and ensure that they would complete the instructional units and accompanying exercises in a timely manner. Once a participant had completed a certain exercise, I immediately received the answer key in order to ensure optimal learning.

I also ensured that no instruction in the learning target took place during regular class time, and/or assisted instructors if student participants had explicit questions regarding the learning target. No questions came up during actual class time but rather, all questions or concerns were directly communicated to me.

3.3.5 Type of Instruction

Instruction in the control group entailed no focus on the learning target and was thus classified as “no treatment” or “exposure,” as suggested by Kasper and Rose (2002). Since the pedagogical intervention took place in a foreign language context, exposure here was limited to the target language input the students received in the classroom with no special focus on pragmatics teaching. In contrast, instruction for the experimental group was modeled after the explicit, awareness-raising approach as suggested by Ishihara (2007) with the intention “to instill in learners a sense of appropriate language *use* by providing a series of awareness-raising tasks” (p. 21).

The particular awareness-raising tasks for the present intervention were inspired by instructional practices commonly used in ILP interventionalist studies (see Kasper &

Rose, 2001) and ranged from explicit metapragmatic instruction, to metapragmatic discussion, purposeful-listening tasks, and video-based discourse rating tasks. According to Kasper and Rose (2001), in ‘explicit metapragmatic instruction,’ “the targeted pragmatic feature is described, explained, or discussed- in short, made the object of metapragmatic treatment” (p. 53). In the present study, explicit metapragmatic instruction consisted of first introducing the learners to the various address forms (pronouns, greetings, and nominal forms), and then presenting their function in communication. Following explicit instruction were multiple-choice and check-the-box activities to assess a learner’s knowledge of particular address forms and functions, as well as metapragmatic discussion. According to Kasper and Rose (2001), ‘metapragmatic discussion’ actively engages the learners in a teacher-led dialogue, and typically consists of metapragmatic comments or explanations. For the present study, participants submitted their metapragmatic discussion as written immediate retrospective reports, identical to the retrospective comment task (RCT) in test section 3.

All purposeful-listening tasks were video-based, directing the learners’ attention to particular forms in the input. For instance, the learners watched a video-clip and then identified the forms contained in the dialogue from a list of address forms. Following Wilkinson (2001), purposeful-listening is understood as to be embedded in the act of noticing:

> As students work to become aware of a specific discourse phenomenon, they are using their receptive skills – probably even more actively than commonly the case during typical aural comprehension exercises! Thus, when using the term ‘noticing’, I am also implicitly referring to the task of purposeful listening. (p. 424)

In a discourse rating task, learners rate a variety of possible responses according to their appropriateness (Lee & McChesney, 2000). The discourse rating tasks used here were similar to the ones of test section 3, in which learners watched a muted video-clip of native speaker interactions and then decided on the level of appropriateness of a variety of discourse options.

In the present study, learners received only video-based input that was derived from already-existing YouTube videos as well as open role-plays that had been acted out and video-taped for the purpose of the intervention. The researcher only chose video-clips that contained natural, unplanned speech samples. According to Rose (2001), the use of video constitutes a potentially rich source for pragmatics learning. "Videos reveal norms of socially appropriate language use" (p. 124) and learners are exposed to "a richer specification of the context in which language use is to occur" (p. 133) than in written texts.

3.3.6 Instructional Materials

I created all instructional materials specifically for the purpose of the present empirical study, and informally tested them in a variety of first- and second- semester German classes at a German language institute in San Francisco in the spring and summer quarters of 2009.

The website was designed, using the free online service *Google Sites*; the individual exercises were created by using the online survey software *Surveymonkey* and all video files were uploaded onto *Vimeo*, an online community for video-sharing. Before the onset of the treatment phase, several English and German native speakers proofread and tested the website and the researcher made necessary changes and improvements.

The website containing the instructional units can be accessed via the following link: http://sites.google.com/site/sociopragmaticsandgerman/. The answer keys to the units can be accessed via: http://sites.google.com/site/answerkeystounits/.

3.3.6.1 Homepage. On the homepage of the website, a short introduction to the subject matter informed the participants that they would be exposed to learning content, video clips, and exercises that feature authentic German in different everyday situations. It furthermore stated the overall goal of the intervention to expand the learners' knowledge of greetings and other address forms, and to give them a more comprehensive picture of how the forms are used by German native speakers in a variety of contexts. Finally, it stressed the importance of the knowledge of cultural norms as a necessary condition for successful communication in a foreign language.

3.3.6.2 Unit 1. Unit 1 contained the majority of the learning content and provided explicit metapragmatic instruction regarding forms of address and their functions in communication. It thus constituted the basis for the remaining units that were focused on illustrating the use of address forms in context. The unit was subdivided into three sections: address pronouns, greetings, and combined forms.

In the introduction to the topic of address pronouns, the learners received information on the different address forms (i.e., personal pronouns, possessive pronouns, and reflexive pronouns with case variations), and their functions in communication ("when to use what"). This section also revisited section 2 of the pretest in which learners had to decide which address pronoun (*du*, *Sie,* or both) is appropriate when talking to a variety of people with whom they are more or less familiar.

The section on greetings consisted of a review of what the learners had encountered in section 1 of the pretest, and was also divided into presentation of form and presentation of function. This information was presented by means of a detailed table, including the greeting, the time of day when it is typically used, a list of reduced forms ranging from more to less formal, and information on the situational context and the relationship between the interlocutors (see Table 1.3). In order to test learners' understanding of the subject matter, the section ended with a multiple choice exercise ("unit 1: greetings"), in which learners had to decide which address forms are most likely used in official and unofficial speech situations, and which forms do or do not make reference to a particular time of the day (morning, evening, night).

Section 3 first introduced the learners to a variety of nominal forms, including first names, last names, titles, and optional titles and then discussed their co-occurrence rules with address pronouns and greetings. Identical to section 2, this section concluded with an exercise ("unit 1: combination of forms") in order to test the learners' understanding of the subject matter. The exercise consisted of a multiple-choice task in which the participants indicated which address forms were acceptable when talking to a variety of people they did not know well.

3.3.6.3 Unit 2. After providing the learners with the necessary background information in unit 1, the second unit moved on to illustrate the subject matter in a contextualized manner. It was based on several You Tube videos, called the "Easy German" series.[19] The unit contained a short introduction and two parts with video-based activities. The introduction stated the overall goal of the unit, namely to make the learners aware of basic greetings in brief "small talk" encounters and to illustrate how native

[19] I received written permission from the author of the episodes, Janusz Hamerski, to use the videos for language learning purposes on 5/24/09.

speakers systematically vary address forms depending who they are talking to.

Part A was based on a video called "How to say 'hello' to the people." In this video, three German students approach strangers in a pedestrian area in the city of Münster, greet them, and ask them how they are doing. It is an ideal example of how address forms are used in spontaneous, authentic native speaker speech. The original video already contained German subtitles, which facilitated comprehension. In step 1 of the 3-step activity, the learners watched the whole 2-minute video-clip. For step 2, the researcher had chosen eight relevant segments for the learners to watch and analyze. For each segment, they were asked to listen carefully to which greetings are used, and to determine whether the participants use the T or the V form(s) of the address pronoun. Learners were also instructed to think about why certain address forms were used. Step 3 of the activity consisted of reviewing the answer key, comparing it to their own answers, and discussing possible questions with the researcher.

Part B of unit 2 was based on another video from the “Easy German” series, and this time featured a learner of German approaching the pedestrians. The learners again completed a 3-step activity structured in the same way as in part A. This video constituted a particularly valuable teaching tool for metapragmatic discussion because it contained incorrect and inappropriate use of address forms. Instances of incorrect address usage are the sudden switch from informal to formal (or vice versa) pronouns; examples of inappropriate address use are a lack of contracted forms in informal speech, and the choice of formal address forms when talking to pedestrians who are much younger than the interviewer. Similar instances of improper use of address forms by learners of German have been found in a variety of research studies (e.g., Belz & Kinginger, 2002;

Lemmerich, 2004; Lemmerich, 2005).

3.3.6.4 Unit 3. Unit 3 was also video-based, but this time, the videos stemmed from open role-plays. The focus here was to introduce the learners to the complexity and ambiguity of the German address system as was pointed out in the extensive treatment of address forms by DeLisle (1986), Clyne et al. (2006), and Kretzenbacher et al. (2006) discussed in Section 2.4.1.1. Unit 3 contained four different parts, each of which discussed a different address situation type, starting with situations in which address usage is straight-forward and moving to more ambiguous examples. Situation type 1 featured two university students talking to each other after class; situation type 2, a university student talking to her professor during her office hour; situation type 3, an undergraduate student and a doctoral student during an informal discussion group; and situation type 4, two colleagues at a German language institute. Scenarios 1 and 2 were identical to the one treated in the pretest, but featured different role-play participants. Scenarios 3 and 4, on the other hand, were novel to the learners (see Appendix E for a description). Following each video were multistep activities, ranging from watching the video, reviewing conversation options and rating them according to their appropriateness, reading original quotes from the videos, focused-listening activities, and metapragmatic discussions. At the end of each exercise, the learners received answer keys containing relevant explanations derived from the German native speaker baseline data. A summary of the topics, goals, and type of activities covered in the three instructional units is provided in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Overview of Instructional Units

	Topics	**Goals**	**Type of Activities**
Unit 1	Introduction to the topic of address forms	To raise awareness of what address forms exist and to explain their co-occurrence options and functions in communication.	Explicit metapragmatic discussion of address forms and functions Multiple-choice activities Check-the-box activities
Unit 2	Greetings and address pronouns in small-talk encounters	To raise awareness of how native speakers vary greetings and address pronouns depending on whom they are talking to. To illustrate commonly-made mistakes of nonnative German speakers with regard to address forms.	Video-based purposeful listening tasks Metapragmatic discussion
Unit 3	Address situation types 1-4, ranging from straight-forward to ambiguous	To raise awareness of appropriate native speaker address behavior including the use of strategies in cases of insecurity.	Video-based discourse ranking tasks Video-based purposeful listening tasks Metapragmatic discussion

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The goal of this data analysis was to study the impact of the pedagogical intervention on the learners' development of sociopragmatic competence. Based on this research purpose, the following main research question was developed:

Main research question: Does a pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach have a positive effect on the development of beginning level learners' sociopragmatic competence?

To answer the main research question, the following subquestions were formulated:

Subquestion 1: Do the learners, subsequent to instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms, exhibit a larger degree of familiarity with a range of primary and secondary greetings?

Sub- question 2: Are learners, subsequent to instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms, able to identify a greater amount of contextually appropriate address pronoun(s) for a variety of situations?

Subquestion 3: Does explicit instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms have a positive effect on the learners' ability to assess the appropriateness of forms of address employed in video-based native speaker conversations?

Subquestion 4: Do learners make use of relevant explicit, metapragmatic information when deciding on the appropriateness of these forms of address?

Previous ILP studies on the impact of explicit instruction on pragmatics learning provided a sufficient basis for formulating the following hypotheses:

H1: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group will show familiarity with a greater amount of primary and secondary greetings than the control group participants.

H2: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group will be able to identify a greater amount of contextually appropriate address pronoun(s) for a variety of situations than the control group participants.

H3: Subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, judgments for the appropriateness of address forms in video-based native speaker conversations performed by the learners in the experimental group, will be more native-like than judgments provided by the control group participants.

H4: Relevant explicit, metapragmatic information will guide the learners in the experimental group when deciding on the appropriateness of these forms of address.

In order to test the hypotheses, data were collected 28 German native speakers and 56 learners of German by means of a pre- and a posttest, targeting address forms in German. The data collection was based on a mixed-method design, and both quantitative and qualitative data were aggregated. For the quantitative component of the data analysis, a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was undertaken using SPSS v14 in order to test whether there was a significant difference in performance on the posttest between the two learner groups. The dependent variable in all instances was the posttest score and the independent variable was control and experimental groups. The pretest score served as the covariate in order to control for students' abilities prior to the study. Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate.

The qualitative component consisted of evaluating written retrospective comments for patterns across learners and of organizing them into categories derived from native speaker awareness data. This method of data analysis was adopted from Ishihara (2007). The present chapter reports the results of the different types of data analysis for each of the three test sections and individual test tasks.

4.2 Test Section 1

4.2.1 Test Task and Scoring Procedure

Test section 1 consisted of a simple check-the box task in which the learner participants indicated which primary (i.e., different ways of saying "hello") and secondary greetings (i.e., different ways of asking how someone is doing) they were familiar with at the time of the pre- and posttest. The purpose for including test section 1 was to provide the test takers with a warm-up activity before moving on to more substantial parts of the test. For this test section, it was unnecessary to compare students' test results to NS norm since there were no correct and incorrect answers to the test question. The learners obtained a score of '1' when they indicated that they knew a greeting, and a score of '0' when they indicated that they were not familiar with a greeting.

4.2.2 Results

The first subresearch question was designed to investigate whether the learners, subsequent to instruction on pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistic norms, would exhibit a larger degree of familiarity with a range of primary and secondary greetings. Analysis of the research data from section 1 showed that the experimental group (EG) recognized a considerably bigger number of greetings at the time of the posttest compared to the pretest. The number of items familiar to the control group (CG), on the other hand, was relatively consistent pretest. This information is illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) examining the differences between the two groups at the time of the posttest were significant, $F(1,53)= 27.58$, $p<.005$, partial eta squared =.34.

When looking at individual greetings, it became apparent that at the time of the pretest, all learners recognized the items that are typically introduced in textbooks, namely *Guten Morgen, Guten Tag, Guten Abend, and Hallo* (Miodek, 1996). Familiarity with more casual, reduced forms, such as *Morgen* or *Tag,* varied but was still relatively high, whereas other greetings that can only be used in familiar situations were either completely unknown to the learners (*Hallöchen*, *Sei gegrüßt*) or were recognized by about half of them (*Hi*, *Hey*). The only secondary greetings all learners knew was *Wie geht's?* Most of them were familiar with the formal variant *Wie geht es Ihnen?*, about half of them with the casual phrase *Geht's gut?,* and none or only a few with the other informal secondary greetings *Wie läuft's?, Na du?* and *Wie geht's, wie steht's?* Posttest results for the experimental group showed clear improvement for all items but the amount of development differed greatly across items (e.g., *Hallöchen:* 0.2-0.68; *Sei gegrüßt* 0-

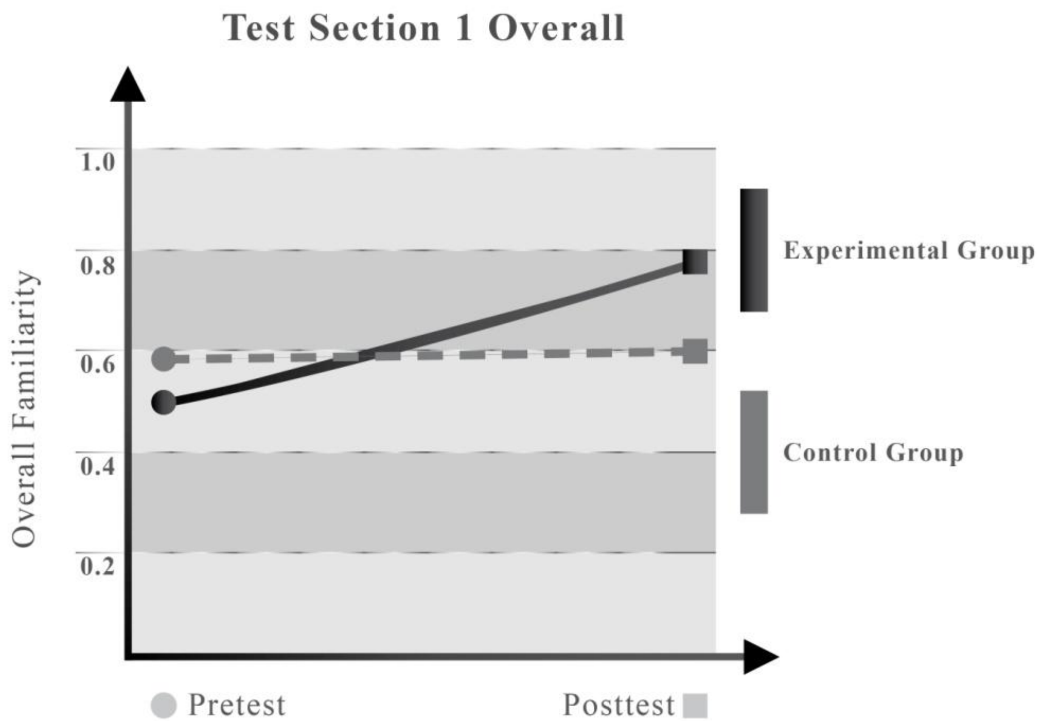

Figure 4.1: Pre- and posttest scores for test section 1

0.7). The results for each individual item are summarized in Table 4.1

4.3 Test Section 2

4.3.1 Test Task and Scoring Procedure

Test section 2 consisted of a matrix-of-choices that required test takers to decide which address pronoun was most appropriate when talking to a variety of interlocutors whom they either knew well (test task 2.1) or had never met before (test task 2.2). Each test task listed nine different interlocutors and provided the following three response options: a) only the formal address pronoun *Sie* is appropriate; b) only the informal address pronoun *du* is appropriate; c) depending on the specifics of the context, either *Sie* or *du* are appropriate. In order to establish a native speaker baseline norm, all individual

Table 4.1

Test Scores for Individual Greetings

	EG-Pretest	EG-Posttest	CG-Pretest	CG-Posttest
Guten Morgen	1	1	1	1
Morgen	.79	.96	.89	.82
Guten Tag	1	1	1	1
Tag	.61	.86	.71	.71
Guten Abend	1	1	1	1
Hallo	1	1	1	1
Hallöchen	.02	.68	.04	.11
Grüß dich	.25	.79	.35	.39
Sei gegrüßt	0	.07	.00	.00
Hi	.61	.96	.64	.61
Hey	.36	.57	.57	.54
Wie geht es Ihnen?	.86	1	.68	.82
Wie geht's?	.96	1	1	1
Wie geht's, wie steht's?	.11	.32	.07	.14
Wie läuft's?	.00	.36	.00	.18
Geht's gut?	.43	.75	.64	.61
Na du?	.04	.39	.07	.29

native speaker responses were coded with either ‘1’ or ‘0’, with ‘1’ representing appropriate and ‘0’ inappropriate. All scores were then summarized for each situation. Since the NS baseline data indicated consistent preferences and there were no competing response choices for any of the situations, the response option that had been selected by the largest number of participants was labeled the ‘native speaker norm.’ Table 4.2 and 4.3 illustrate the native speaker norm for each situation in both subsections of test section 2. Table 4.2 refers to situations in which the interlocutors know each other well, Table 4.3 to situations where the participants have never met before.

Individual student scores were obtained by comparing their responses to the NS baseline norm for each of the 18 interlocutor options (9 per subsection). Learners, whose

Table 4.2

Native Speaker Norm, Test Task 2.1

	Sie	***du***	**depends**
An immediate family member		x	
A friend		x	
A child		x	
An extended family member (e.g., in-laws)		x	
A next-door neighbor			x
In a service encounter (e.g., cashier in a neighborhood store),	x		
A colleague at work			x
A university student		x	
A high school student		x	

Table 4.3

Native Speaker Norm, Test Task 2.2

	Sie	***du***	**depends**
A stranger (adult) you meet in the street	x		
A stranger (teenager) you meet in the street,		x	
A stranger (child) you meet in the street,		x	
An extended family member (e.g., in laws)			x
A next-door neighbor	x		
In a service encounter (e.g., cashier in grocery store)			
A colleague at work	x		
A university student			x
A high school student		x	

choice was consistent with the native speaker norm, received a score of '1', whereas learners whose selection was inconsistent with the NS norm received a score of '0'. Thus, higher learner scores (those closer to 1) represented a better performance on the test than lower scores (those closer to 0).

4.3.2 Results

The second subresearch question was designed to test whether learners in the experimental group (EG) would show a greater ability to decide on the appropriateness of address pronouns in a variety of speech situations compared to the learners in the control group (CG). It was hypothesized in H2 that, subsequent to explicit instruction, the EG learners would outperform the EC learners in this test task. Mean scores for both learner groups were calculated for the entire test section, for each subsection of the test, and for all individual situations. The results are presented in the following sections.

<u>4.3.2.1 All of test section 2.</u> Table 4.4 displays the mean scores and standard deviations for both learner groups. It shows that the control group received a pretest score of 0.62 (*SD* = 0.11) and a posttest score of 0.63 (*SD* = 0.11). The scores of the experimental grouped changed from 0.64 (*SD* = 0.07) on the pretest to 0.77 (*SD* = 0.10) on the posttest.

As Figure 4.2 illustrates, the pretest scores reflect similar abilities between the control group and the experimental group. Scores on the posttest, however, reflect a noticeable improvement of the experimental group, whereas the performance of the control group remains almost static.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) showed that there was a significant difference in the groups' scores on the posttest scores $F(1,53)$

Table 4.4

Mean Scores for Test Section 2

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	.63 (.11)	.62 (.11)
Control Group	.77 (.10)	.64 (.07)

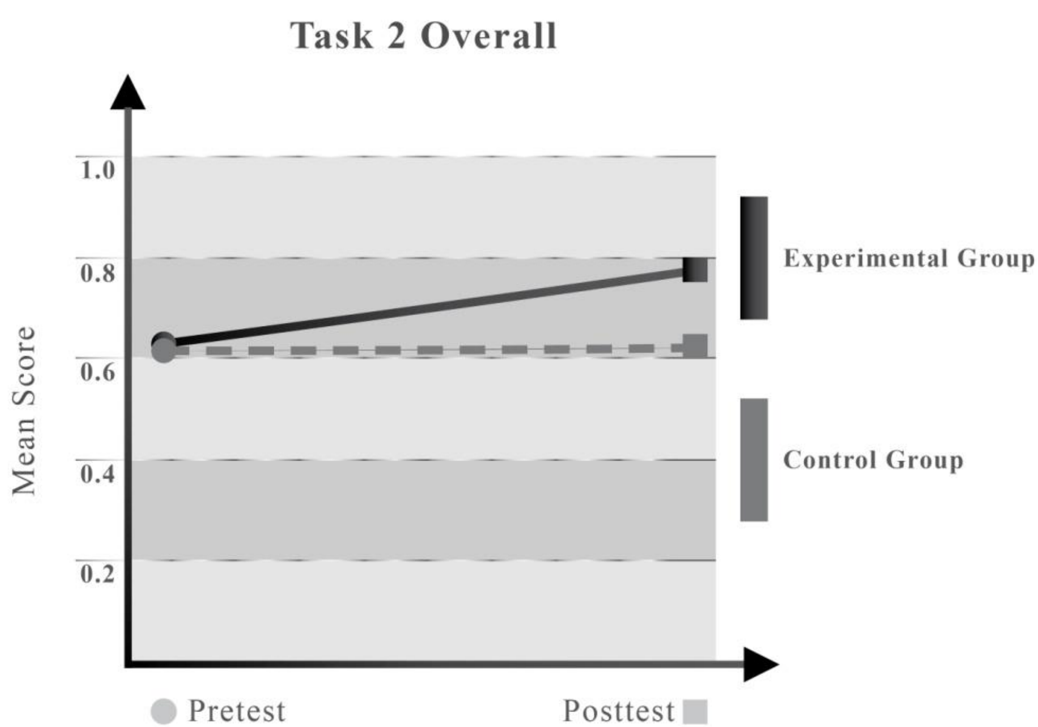

Figure 4.2: Pre- and posttest scores for test section 2

= 25.1, $p < .005$, partial eta squared= .32. The partial eta squared of .32 indicates a medium effect size as per Cohen's widely applied "rule of thumb" for interpreting partial eta squared (Cohen, 1988).

4.3.2.2 Task 2.1. Test task 2.1 consisted of choosing the appropriate address pronoun (*Sie*, *du* or 'it depends') for nine situations in which the interlocutors knew each other well. A separate analysis of this test task yielded a pretest score of 0.67 (SD = 0.14) and a posttest score of 0.68 (SD = 0.11) for the control group. The experimental group received a score of 0.73 (SD = 0.14) at the time of the pretest and a score of 0.78 (SD = 0.14) at the time of the posttest. These mean scores and standard deviation are summarized in Table 4.5.

Identical to the observations made for all of test section 2, the pretest scores in test task 2.1 showed similar abilities between the two groups at the time of the pretest, but a different degree of development can be seen in their posttest scores, with the control group barely changing and the experimental group clearly developing. This difference is illustrated in Figure 4.3.

In order to test whether the difference between groups observed in the posttest results are significant, a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was undertaken. Results showed that the difference of the posttest scores was significant, $F(1,53)= 5.4$, $p < .05$, partial eta squared= .10. The partial eta squared of .10 indicates a small effect size.

4.3.2.3 Task 2.2. In test task 2.2, the learners had to select appropriate address pronouns for nine different situations in which the interlocutors had never met before. Table 4.6 summarizes the means and standard deviations for both learner groups. As can

Table 4.5

Mean Scores for Test Task 2.1

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	.73 (.14)	.78 (.14)
Control Group	.67 (.11)	.68 (.14)

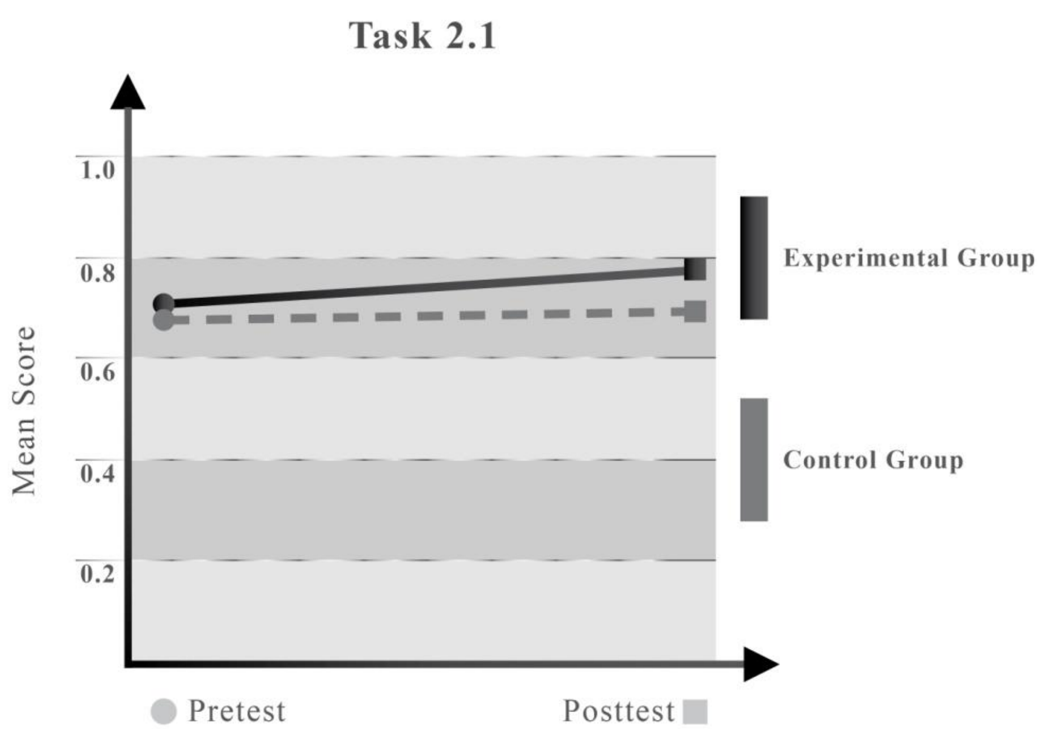

Figure 4.3: Pre- and posttest scores for test task 2.1

Table 4.6

Mean Scores for Test Task 2.2

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	.54 (.13)	.77 (.10)
Control Group	.58 (.16)	.59 (.15)

be seen, the control reached a pretest score of 0.58 (*SD* = 0.16) and a posttest score of 0.59 (*SD* = 0.15). The pretest score for the experimental group was 0.54 (*SD* = 0.13) and the posttest score 0.77 (*SD* = 0.10).

In this instance, the pretest scores of the two groups reflected again similar abilities, whereas the posttest scores reflected clear differences in their degrees of development from before to after the intervention. Figure 4.4 illustrates these changes.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) examining the differences between the two groups at the time of the posttest were significant, $F(1,53)= 32.0$, $p<.005$, partial eta squared =.38. However, a preliminary check to ensure homogeneity of variance (Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance) revealed a significance of $p= .03$, thus violating a key assumption of the ANCOVA. The next step was to run an ANOVA (which is more robust) on the same data. Of course, this meant that the covariate of pretest scores had to be eliminated from consideration. However, since the pretest scores for both groups were almost identical, this was not considered a problem. The ANOVA was significant, $F(1,54)= 18.4$, $p<.005$. A Levene's test value of .21 indicated an acceptable value.

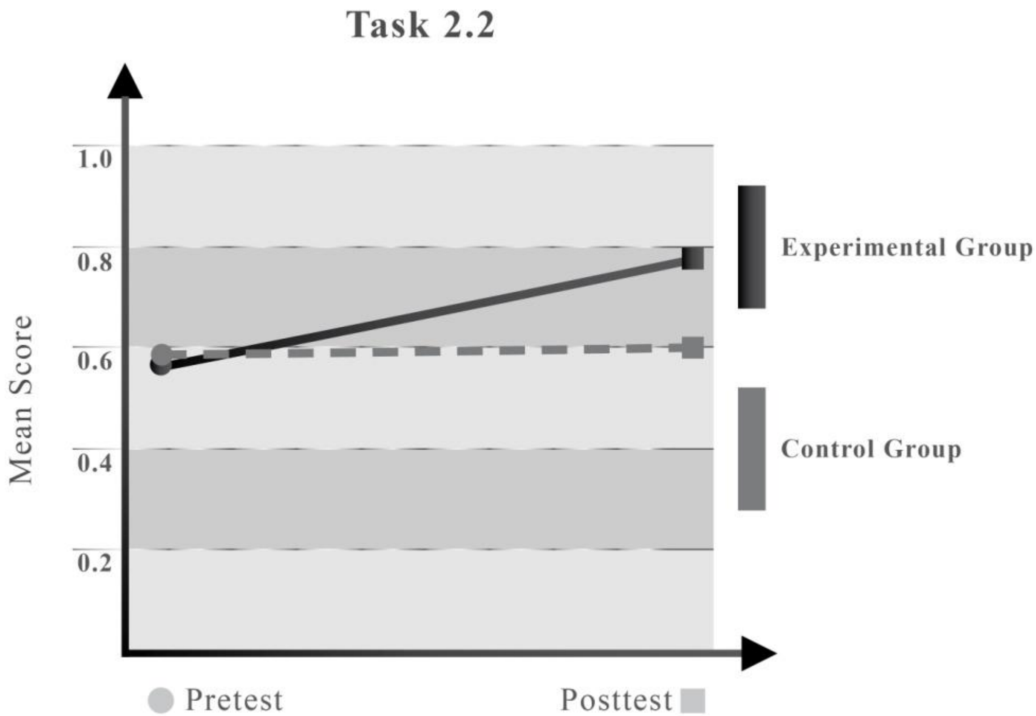

Figure 4.4: Pre- and posttest scores for test task 2.2

4.4 Test Section 3: Discourse Rating Task

4.4.1 Test Task and Scoring Procedure

Test section 3 contained four parts, each of which consisted of two discourse rating tasks (DRT). For each DRT, the test takers had to rate three possible responses to a particular scenario and dialogue prompt on a scale from 1 to 4, with 1 being inappropriate, 2 being somewhat inappropriate, 3 being somewhat appropriate, and 4 being appropriate. This resulted in a total of 24 ratings per test for each test taker. Native speaker baseline data was obtained by figuring out the mean for each rating. For instance, if 27 out of 28 NSs rated a given response option as ‘appropriate’ and one NS as ‘somewhat appropriate,’ the native speaker baseline norm was 3.96. Student scores were derived from calculating the difference between each rating for every single response option provided by the learners and the native speaker norm in terms of absolute values. To illustrate, if the native speaker norm was set at 3.96 and the student had rated a response option at 4, the student obtained a score of 0.04. As a result of this scoring procedure, a lower test score represented a better performance on the test. Reversely, a higher test score represented a worse performance on the test task.

4.4.2 Results

The third subresearch question concerned the impact of the pedagogical intervention on the learners’ ability to assess the appropriateness of forms of address employed in video-based native speaker conversations. Hypothesis H3 stated that subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the appropriateness judgments performed by the learners in the experimental group will be more native-like than the ones provided by the control group participants. In order to test H2, a statistical analysis was conducted for the test section as a whole, as well as for each individual scenario. The results are summarized below.

4.4.2.1. All of test section 3. Table 4.7 displays the mean scores and standard deviations obtained by each of the two learner groups for both the pretest and the posttest. In the pretest, the control group received a score of 0.76 (*SD* = 0.15); on the posttest, their overall score was 0.87 (*SD* =0.18). The experimental group reached a pretest score of 0.76 (*SD* = 0.13) and a posttest score of 0.50 (*SD* = 0.15).

As can be seen in Figure 4.5, the pretest scores reflect the same abilities for both learner groups. Scores on the posttest, however, reflect a noticeable improvement of the experimental group, whereas the performance of the control group remains almost static.

To test the statistical significance of differences found, a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was undertaken. The results yielded a significant difference in the groups' scores on the posttest, $F(1,53)= 66.7$, $p< .005$, partial eta squared= .56. The partial eta squared of .56 indicates a large effect size.

In order to examine whether the learners' ability to make appropriate judgments differed across tests tasks, the data from test section 3 was also analyzed individually for each of the four scenarios. The results are provided in the following sections.

4.4.2.2. Scenario 1. In scenario 1, the learners watched a short video-clip of two German native speakers assuming the roles of two undergraduate university students. The younger student (sophomore) approaches the older student (senior) in order to ask for her help with an upcoming presentation. The test task consisted of reading the description of the scenario and the dialogue prompt, and then rating each of the three possible responses on a scale from 1 to 4 for each subpart of the test task (subpart (a): when the sophomore

Table 4.7

Mean Scores for Test Section 3

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	.76 (.18)	.50 (.15)
Control Group	.76 (.15)	.87 (.13)

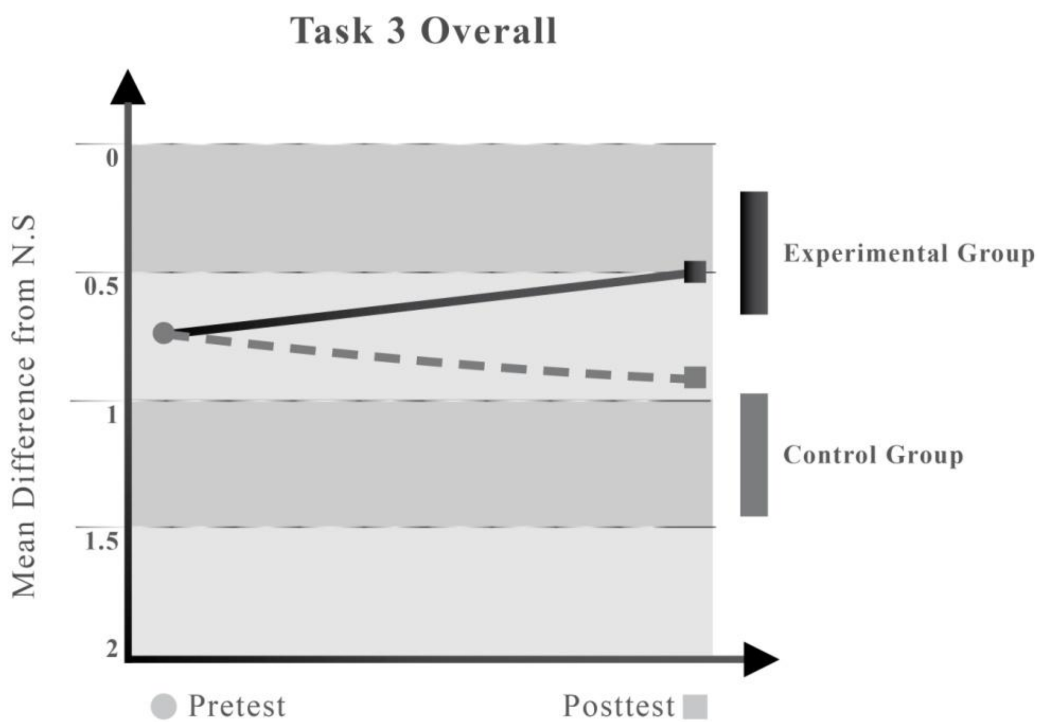

Figure 4.5: Pre- and posttest scores for test section 3

approaches the senior and subpart (b): when the senior responds to the sophomore; for a detailed description of all scenarios and dialogue options, see Appendix D).

Table 4.8 lists the mean scores and standard deviations obtained by each of the two learner groups. Looking at the scores for the control group, we see that in this instance, the control group starts out with a considerably higher pretest score than the experimental group. However, as their score remains almost static from the pretest (mean = 1.06; *SD* = 0.43) to the posttest (mean = 1.16; *SD* = 0.46), the experimental group shows great improvement with a mean score of 1.37 (*SD* = 0.26) at the time of the pretest and a mean score of 0.52 at the time of the posttest (*SD* = 0.37). A graphic representation of this development is provided in Figure 4.6.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) showed that there was a significant difference on the posttest scores, $F(1,53)= 28.1$, $p< .005$, partial eta squared= .35. The partial eta squared of .35 indicates a medium effect size.

<u>4.4.2.3 Scenario 2</u>. Scenario 2 consisted of a conversation between an undergraduate student and her university professor during the professor's office hour. The test task entailed reading the description of the scenario and the dialogue prompt, and then rating each of the three possible responses on a scale from 1 to 4 for each subpart of the test task (subpart (a): when the student addresses the professor and subpart (b): when the professor responds to the student).

Table 4.9 displays mean values and the standard deviations for each group. The pretest score for the control group was 0.82 (*SD* = 0.27), the posttest score 1.27 (*SD* = 0.32). The experimental group received a score of 0.75 (*SD* = 0.34) before and a score of 0.68 (*SD* = 0.37) after the treatment.

Table 4.8

Mean Scores for Test Task 3.1

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	1.37 (0.26)	0.52 (0.37)
Control Group	1.06 (0.43)	1.16 (0.46)

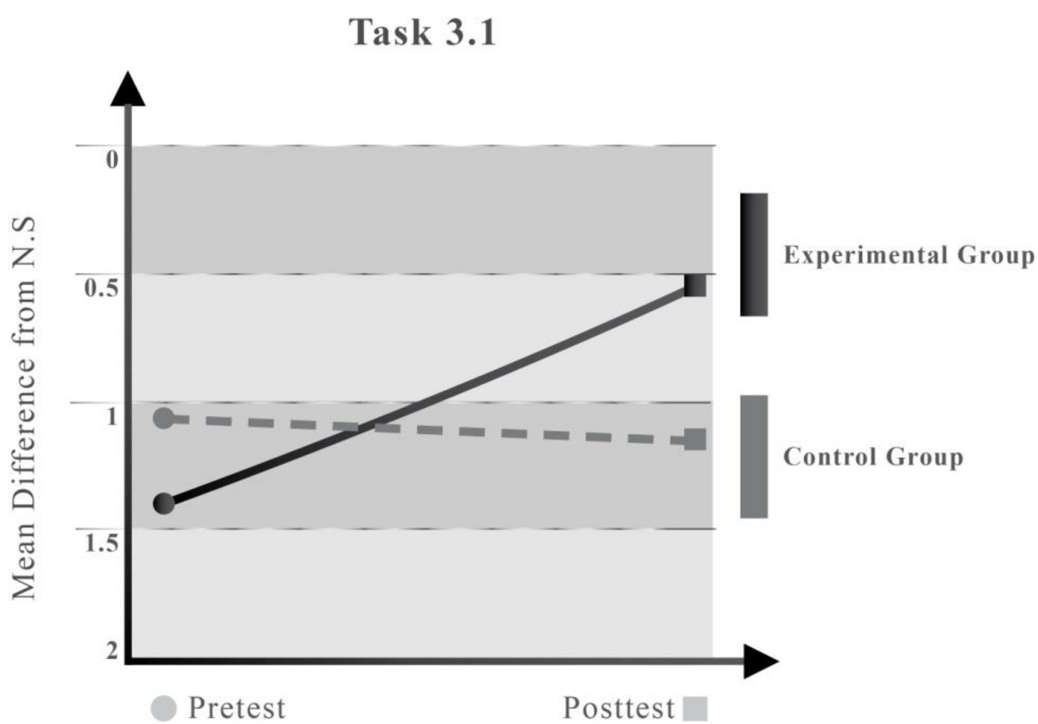

Figure 4.6: Pre- and posttest scores for test task 3.1

Table 4.9

Mean Scores for Test Task 3.2

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	0.75 (0.34)	0.68 (0.37)
Control Group	0.82 (0.27)	1.27 (0.32)

In this example, the control group started out with lower test scores than the experimental group and their posttest scores reflected an even greater distance from the native speaker norm. In contrast, the experimental group again showed clear development. This can be seen in Figure 4.7.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) examining the differences between the two groups at the time of the posttest were significant, $F(1,53)= 38.3$, $p< .005$, partial eta squared= .42. The partial eta squared of .32 indicates a medium/ large effect size.

4.4.2.4 Scenario 3. Scenario 3 takes place at the reception of a German language institute and presents a conversation between a woman who has applied for a teaching position and a receptionist. The woman approaches the reception desk, tells the receptionist her name, and that she has an appointment for an interview. The receptionist then tells her that the interviewer is still in a meeting and to please wait in the lounge. The test task consisted of reading the description of the scenario and the dialogue prompt, and then rating each of the three possible responses on a scale from 1 to 4 for each subpart of the test task (subpart (a): when the woman addresses the receptionist and

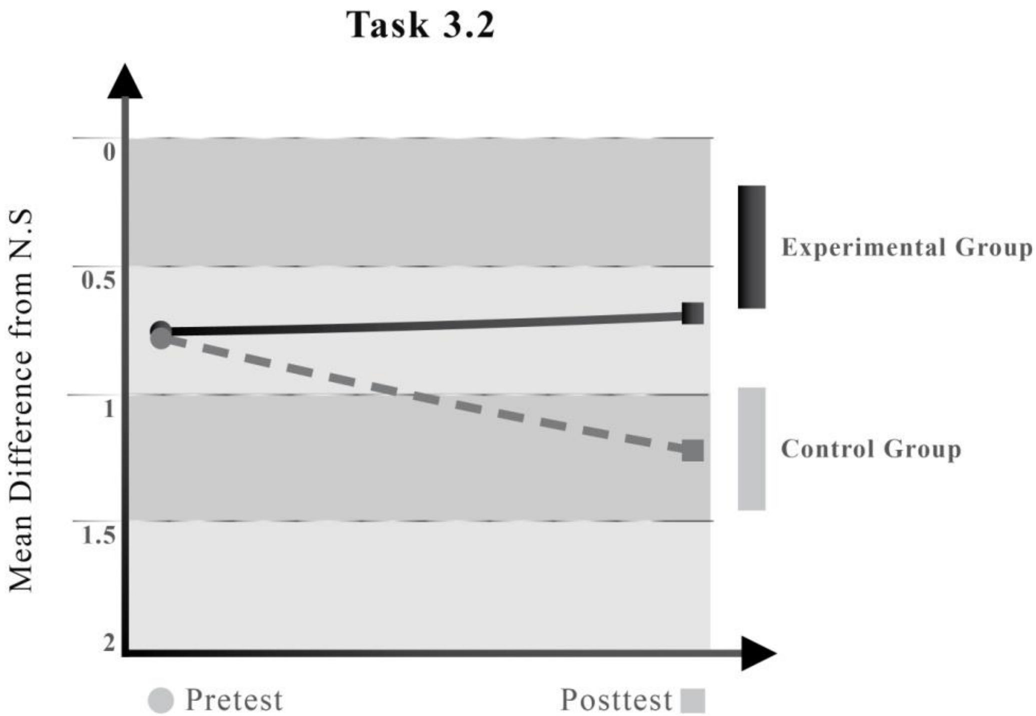

Figure 4.7: Pre- and posttest scores for task 3.2

subpart (b): when the receptionist responds to the woman).

In Table 4.10, the mean scores and standard deviations for each of the learner groups are displayed. The pretest score of the control group was 0.44 (*SD* = 0.28); in the posttest, they received a score of 0.37 (*SD* = 0.28). The experimental group's scores improved from 0.29 (*SD* = 0.15) at the time of the pretest to 0.26 (*SD* = 0.26) at the time of the posttest.

The mean scores for both tests again reflected differences between the two groups. The control group performed worse at the time of pretest but showed some development by the time of the posttest. The experimental group, on the other hand, received a score of only 0.29 at the time of the pretest, which represents only a small gap

Table 4.10

Mean Scores for Test Task 3.3

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	0.29 (0.15)	0.26 (0.26)
Control Group	0.44 (0.28)	0.37 (0.28)

between their performance and the native speaker norm. Their posttest score showed only slight development (0.26), but again a greater approximation to the NS norm than the control group. This is illustrated in Figure 4.8.

Results of a one-way between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) showed that the differences in the posttest score were not significant, $F(1,53)= 1.50$, $p= .23$, partial eta squared= .03.

4.4.2.5 Scenario 4. The final scenario 4 test section 3 featured two instructors at a language institute. One of the instructors has already worked there for 3 years; the other instructor has just been hired. On her first teaching day, the new instructor approaches the other instructor in the copy room and introduces herself. The test takers were instructed to first read the description of the scenario and the dialogue prompt, and then rate each of the three possible responses on a scale from 1 to 4 for each subpart of the test task (subpart a: when the new instructor addresses the old instructor and subpart b: when the old instructor responds to the new instructor).

Table 4.11 displays the mean scores and standard deviations for both learner groups obtained in the pretest and the posttest. The control group received a score of 0.70

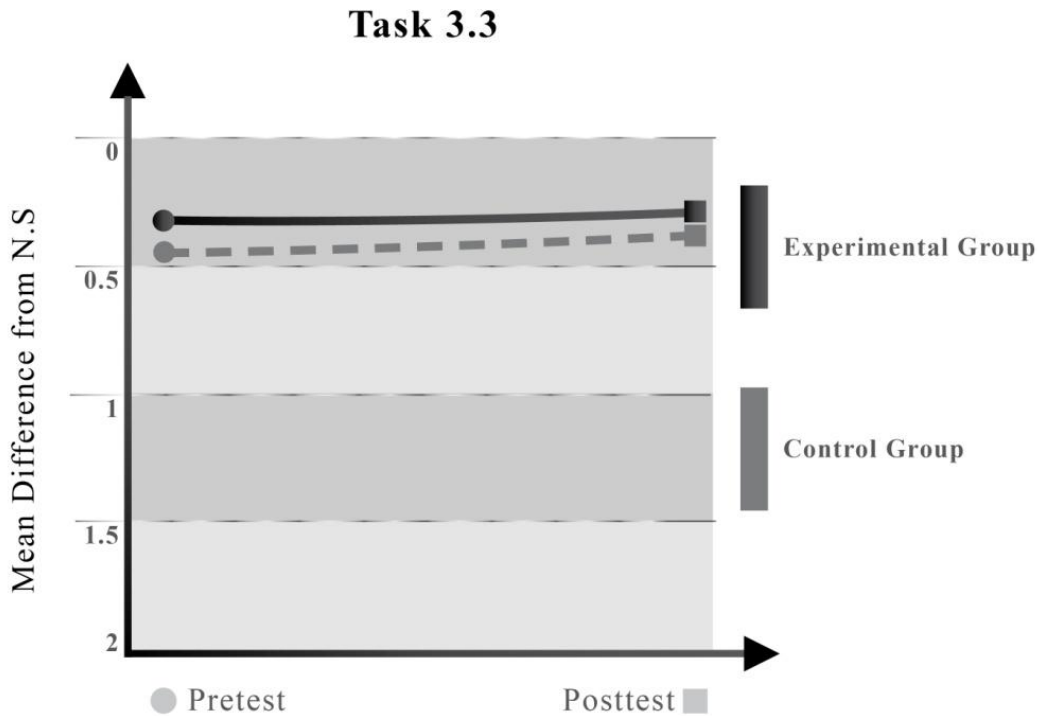

Figure 4.8: Pre- and posttest scores for test task 3.3

Table 4.11

Mean Scores for Test Task 3.4

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Experimental Group	0.65 (0.24)	0.58 (0.28)
Control Group	0.70 (0.27)	0.69 (0.26)

(*SD* = 0.27) in the pretest and a score of 0.69 (*SD* = 0.26) in the posttest. The scores for the experimental group improved from 0.65 (*SD* = 0.24) to 0.58 (*SD* = 0.28).

In this test task, both groups showed similar abilities before the intervention. The control group's test performance remained almost unchanged, but the experimental group showed some improvement. Figure 4.9 illustrates the pretest/posttest differences. One-way (ANCOVA) results indicate that these score were not significantly different between the two learner groups, $F(1,53)= 1.90$, $p= .18$, partial eta squared= .03.

4.5 Test Section 3: Retrospective Comment Task

4.5.1 Test Task and Research Question

In addition to the discourse completion tasks (DCT), in which test participants rated the appropriateness of address forms for a variety of situations, test section 3 also contained two retrospective comment tasks (RCT) per scenario, amounting to eight RCTs per test.

In the RCTs, the learners were asked to provide immediate written feedback on how they had arrived at their rating decisions, or in other words, what had led them to the decision that a particular conversation option was more or less appropriate in a given situation.

This test section addressed the fourth subresearch question, which was designed to investigate the degree to which learners make use of relevant explicit, metapragmatic information when deciding on the appropriateness of relevant forms of address. It was hypothesized in H3 that subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group would be able to make better use of relevant explicit, metapragmatic

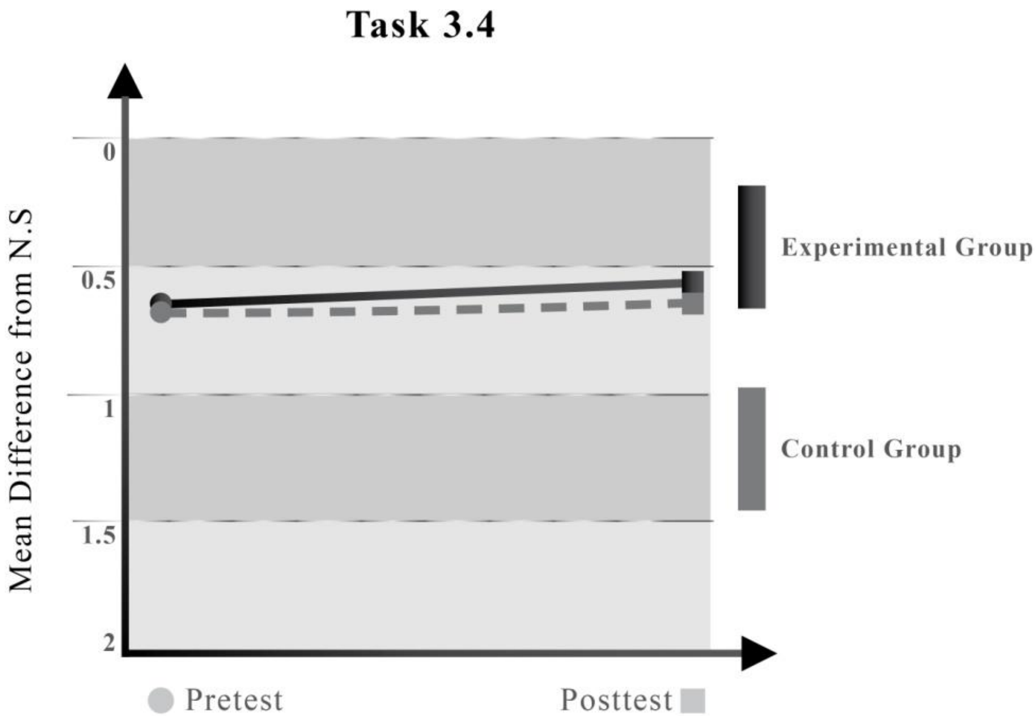

Figure 4.9: Pre- and posttest scores for test task 3.4

information than the learners in the control group.

4.5.2 Data Analysis

The qualitative data analysis was inspired by the method suggested by Ishihara (2007). The researcher first compiled a list of factors that govern address behavior. This list was derived from the L1 sociolinguistics literature on address forms and supplemented by factors repeatedly mentioned in the native speaker comments from the RCTs. The following factors stood out as 'core factors' across a variety of publications (Clyne et al., 2006; DeLisle, 1986; Winchatz, 2001): formality, distance, authority, and respect in contrast to intimacy and informality; solidarity (inclusion: belonging to the same group, sharing the same interest) in contrast to nonsolidarity (exclusion); the individual's communicative intent. In addition to these factors, the criteria 'naturalness,' 'age,' and 'attitude'/ 'personality' were added since they were repeatedly mentioned in the NS comments.

In order to code the learner data, a system was devised to enable a thorough analysis. For each rating task, the relevant factors from the NS data were listed in alphabetical order on a coding sheet (for a summary of the NS baseline, please refer to Appendix F). Learner comments were then grouped into the categories on the coding sheet and quantified. Learner comments that were irrelevant (i.e., did not address the question asked) were not considered in the quantitative analysis. To ensure a high degree of interrater reliability of data obtained through stimulated recall (for a discussion see Gass & Mackey, 2000, pp. 63-76), the data was coded and analyzed independently by two raters, me and a graduate student trained in the social sciences who is also a native speaker of German.

4.5.3 Results

The following sections provide the results from the RCTs for scenarios 1 through 4. For each scenario, a table presents in alphabetical order the relevant factors that led to a particular choice of address form, as well as the numbers of learners from each group whose retrospective comments demonstrated awareness of these factors at the time of the posttest.[20] Response options (A), (B), and (C) always refer to the conversation starters and options (D), (E), and (F) to the responses.

---

[20] Due to the focus of the research question, the data analysis was limited to the posttest only.

4.5.3.1 Scenario 1. The participants in scenario 1 are two undergraduate students (a sophomore and a senior) who attend the same course. After class, the sophomore approaches the senior and asks for help with her presentation (conversation starter). The senior agrees to help the sophomore (response).

The data analysis showed the following results for each of the learner groups (see Table 4.12). The control group participants mentioned a range of suitable factors for determining the appropriateness level for response options A-F: age (3), formality/informality (26), group membership (6), naturalness (1), and unfamiliarity (2); the total number of correct explanations was 38. In addition, the data analysis also exhibited that in many instances, their ratings were based on the wrong reasoning. Incorrectly mentioned factors included unfamiliarity (9), politeness (4), and age (7) as reasons for choosing *Sie* as the most appropriate address form, amounting to a total of 20. The learners of the experimental group indicated that the factors age (1), formality/ informality (48), group membership (38), naturalness (1), politeness (2), and unfamiliarity (12) governed their decision-making. Their total number of suitable explanations was 102. Four (4) students also mentioned one unsuitable factor, namely the age difference between the two students as a reason to use *Sie*.

4.5.3.2 Scenario 2. In scenario 2, a conversation takes places between an undergraduate student and her professor. The student visits the professor during her office hour in order to receive some clarification regarding her upcoming presentation (conversation starter). The professor replies by asking how she can be of help (response). The analysis of learner data provided the following insights (see Table 4.13). The control group participants mentioned the suitable factors attitude (1), formality/informality (5),

Table 4.12

Factors in RCT, Task 3.1

Response Option	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**	**Response Option**	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**
3.1 A	*Appropriate because…* Age (3 /0) Formality (3 /3) Group membership (5 /17)	3.1 D	*Appropriate because…* Formality (3 /3) Group membership (0/12) Naturalness (1 /0)
3.1 B	*Inappropriate because…* Formality (3 / 8) Group membership (0/4)	3.1 E	*Inappropriate because…* Formality (3 /8)
3.1 C	*Inappropriate because…* Informality (5 /10) Politeness (impolite) (0/2) Unfamiliarity (2 /12)	3.1 F	*Inappropriate because…* Age (1/0) Formality (9 /8) Group membership (10/1) Naturalness (0/1)

Table 4.13

Factors in RCT, Task 3.2

Response Option	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**	**Response Option**	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**
3.2 A	*Appropriate because…* Age (0/1) Respect (9/12) Unfamiliarity (2/6)	3.2 D	*Appropriate because…* Unfamiliarity (1/5) Respect (2/1) Setting (1/0)
3.2 B	*Inappropriate because…* Respect (rude) (2/3) Informality (too casual) (1/1) Unfamiliarity (0/2)	3.2 E	*Appropriate because…* Formality (good balance between casual and respectful) (1/4) Respect (3/1) Setting (1/2) *Inappropriate because…* Unfamiliarity (0/2)
3.2 C	*Appropriate because…* Attitude (relaxed) (1/0) *Inappropriate because…* Informality (omits title) (2/5) Unfamiliarity (1/0)	3.2 F	*Inappropriate because…* Familiarity (1/0) Informality (too casual) (1/3) Respect (disrespectful, as if she was addressing a child) (1/0)

respect (17), setting (2), and unfamiliarity (2) as governing their rating decisions. The total number of factors listed was 27. Furthermore, a few learners provided inapt explanations (10), including the student's age (1) and the professor's higher status (9) as a reason to use *du*. The learners in the experimental group listed age (1), familiarity/ unfamiliarity (15), informality (13) respect (17), and setting (2) as adequate factors, amounting to a total of 48. Again, the inadequate explanation that professor can use *du* due their higher status was used a few times (5).

4.5.3.3. Scenario 3. Scenario 3 presents a conversation between a job applicant and a receptionist who works at a language institute. The job applicant approaches the receptionist, introduces herself, and states that she has arrived for her job interview (conversation starter). The receptionist replies by greeting her and asking her with whom she has an appointment (response).

The information obtained from the CG data revealed formality (1), politeness (4), respect (5), setting (16), and unfamiliarity (8) as relevant criteria, amounting to a total of 34. A slightly bigger variety of factors was mentioned by the learners of the control group, including age (3), attitude (1), formality (4), politeness (1), respect (2), setting (28), and unfamiliarity (23). Their total number of explanations reached 62 (see Table 4.14).

4.5.3.4 Scenario 4. Scenario 4 features two instructors at a language institute who have never spoken to each other before. One of the two women was just hired and introduces herself to the instructor who has worked at the institute for a few years (conversation starter). The senior instructor greets her back and also introduces herself (response).

Table 4.14

Factors in RCT, Task 3.3

Response Option	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**	**Response Option**	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**
3.3 A	*Appropriate because…* Politeness (3/1) Setting (3/9) Unfamiliarity (3/9)	3.3 D	*Appropriate because…* Politeness (1/0) Setting (6/9) Unfamiliarity (1/3)
3.3 B	*Inappropriate because…* Respect (disrespectful) (2/1) Setting (4/3) Unfamiliarity (3/4)	3.3 E	*Inappropriate because…* Respect (rude) (3/1) Setting (3/3) Unfamiliarity (1/1)
3.3 C	*Appropriate because…* Age (same) (0/2) Formality (good balance between formal and friendly; not stiff) (1/2) Setting (0/3) Unfamiliarity (0/5)	3.3 F	*Appropriate because…* Age (0/1) Attitude (friendly/ young) (0/1) Formality (good balance between formal and friendly) (0/2) Unfamiliarity (0/1)

The data analysis revealed a broad range of criteria as contributing to the learners' ranking decisions (see Table 4.15). CG participants mentioned the factors formality/ informality (29), group membership (4), intimacy (1), respect (5), and unfamiliarity (5), totaling 44. The explanations (73) of the EG group included the factors age (1), communicative intent (1), formality/ informality (16), group membership (5), intimacy (2), network practice (35), personality (7), respect (2), setting (1) and unfamiliarity (3).

Table 4.15

Factors in RCT, Task 3.4

Response Option	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**	**Response Option**	**Relevant Factors (mentioned by # of CG/EG participants)**
3.4 A	*Appropriate because…* Age (0/1) Group membership (1/0) Personality (0/3) *Inappropriate because…* Informality (too casual) (7/7) Respect (disrespectful because doesn't state last name) (2/0)	3.4 D	*Appropriate because…* Intimacy (helps establish a casual relationship with a peer) (1/2) Network practice (0/ 9) Group membership (0/1) Unfamiliarity (0/1) *Inappropriate because …* Unfamiliarity (first meeting) (2/1) Informality (too informal) (5/1)
3.4 B	*Appropriate because…* Formality (right level of formality) (5/2) Group membership (2/2) Unfamiliarity (2/1) Respect (0/1) Network practice (0/6) Personality (0/2)	3.4 E	*Appropriate because…* Formality (right level) (6/1) Respect (1/1) Network practice (0/8) Group membership (0/1) Unfamiliarity (0/1)
3.4 C	*Appropriate because…* Respect (2/1) Unfamiliarity (3/0) Network practice (0/7) Group membership (0/1) Setting (0/1) Personality (0/2) *Inappropriate because…* Formality (too stiff) (4/6)	3.4 F	*Appropriate because…* Network practice (0/5) Communicative intent (use of "Sie" in order to maintain social distance; express seniority) (0/1) *Inappropriate because…* Formality (too stiff) (7/0) Group membership (1/0)

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

The final chapter provides a summary and interpretation of the main findings and addresses the research questions and hypotheses formulated in Chapter 2. It furthermore contextualizes the findings of the present study by comparing them to findings from previously conducted empirical studies that addressed similar research questions. The final sections consist of discussing the limitations and future directions of the study, as well as its implications for the fields of L2 Pedagogy and L2 Teacher Education.

5.2 Interpretation of Main Findings

This study examined the effects of a pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach on beginning-level learners' development of sociopragmatic competence. The specific research focus was on the development of receptive skills and metapragmatic knowledge as demonstrated by the learners' ability to recognize and reflect on contextually appropriate language, and to employ the metapragmatic information that they had received during instruction.

The study addressed the main research question: Does a pedagogical intervention adopting an explicit, awareness-raising approach have a positive effect on the development of beginning level learners' sociopragmatic competence? This question can be answered positively. All test sections showed that, subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners of the experimental group demonstrated a significantly greater ability to recognize contextually appropriate address forms and a higher metapragmatic awareness than the control group participants. It furthermore became apparent that, in addition to this overall positive development, the effects of the intervention differed with regard to test tasks and test items. Examples and possible explanations for differential effects across test tasks and items are provided in the following sections.

5.2.1 Test Section 1

Hypothesis H1 stated that subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group would show familiarity with a greater amount of primary and secondary greetings than the control group participants. This hypothesis could be confirmed. The posttest results from a between-group analysis showed that the learners in the experimental group showed a higher recognition rate of greetings, a difference that yielded significant ANCOVA results.

In addition to this overall positive development, it became apparent that the intervention yielded differential effects across test items. The first observation to be made is that for some greetings, there was no room for change throughout the course of the intervention, since the learners had already reached a familiarity rate of 100% at the time of the pretest. This high recognition rate solely applied to greetings that, according to Miodek's (1996) review study, are typically taught in beginning-level textbooks (*Hallo, Guten Morgen, Guten Tag,* and *Guten* Abend), and thus can most likely be attributed to prolonged exposure through teaching materials and regular classroom instruction. The posttest results for these greeting formulas stayed consistent. The recognition rate remained at 100%.

The second insight gained from analyzing single test items is that the change in the recognition rate of reduced forms, diminutives, and phonetic variants was apparent but the final average recognition rate did not exceed 80%. It could furthermore be seen that the smallest amount of change took place in the learners' familiarity rate with regard to non-time-specific greetings that are typically used in unofficial speech situations, and in order to express a more casual, personal, or at times playful attitude (e.g., *Wie geht's, wie steht's, Wie läuft's?, Na du?*).

Possible explanations for these observed differences are: (i) reduced forms might be associated with nonstandard or overly casual speech, and learners are thus more reluctant to making them part of their repertoire; (ii) it might be harder to grasp the meaning and rules of use for less conventionalized routine formula. Since these items were taught by means of explicit metapragmatic instruction only, learners might not have had enough exposure in order to become comfortable with their usage. It is possible that, in order to understand the more nuanced and multifaceted meaning of less standardized greetings, one needs to involve the learners in additional metapragmatic discussions regarding their rules of use and present them with authentic native speaker models. However, since test section 1 was only focused on the learners' ability to recognize greetings rather than explain rules of use or assess their appropriateness in context, the test results for some test items are nevertheless a bit surprising.

5.2.2 Test Section 2

Hypothesis H2 stated that subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, the learners in the experimental group would be able to identify a significantly greater amount of contextually appropriate address pronoun(s) than the control group participants. This hypothesis could be confirmed. As the ANCOVA results for test section 2 indicated, the learners in the experimental group did significantly better on the posttest than the control group participants. In addition, significant results between groups could also be found for both test sections when test tasks 2.1 and 2.2 were analyzed separately.

A further analysis of the EG's development throughout the course of the intervention on task 2 also yielded differential effects for single test items. Table 5.1 presents the learners' pre- and posttest performances for each interlocutor option in test task 2.1. As can be seen, in four out of nine instances, the EG group participants had already reached very high scores on the pretest (options a, b, c, i), leaving them with no or almost no room for improvement. The data furthermore showed improvement in all of the remaining instances (options d, e, g, h) with the exception of option f; here the test score dropped slightly. The biggest approximation to the NS norm (=1) could be seen for option g), followed by options h), e), and d).

For test task 2.2, analysis of single test items showed a similar trend. In four instances,the pretest scores were already high at the time of the pretest (options a, c, e, f), leaving no or little room for improvement. Considerable development could be seen for the remaining five interlocutor options (b, d, g, h, i). The greatest approximation to the NS norm was observed for option h), followed by i), b), g), and d), as summarized in Table 5.2.

When comparing the findings from both test tasks, the following commonalities became visible: (i) High test scores at the beginning of the treatment were limited to situations in which pronoun use according to the NS baseline data was straightforward. Examples include the use of the informal pronoun *du* when talking to an immediate

Table 5.1

Mean Pre- and Posttest Scores for Single Test Items on Test Task 2.1

Interlocutor Options	**EG means pretest**	**EG means Posttest**
a) an immediate family member	0.93	0.93
b) a friend	1.00	1.00
c) a child	0.96	1.00
d) an extended family member (e.g., in-laws)	0.43	0.50
e) a next-door neighbor	0.43	0.54
f) in a service encounter (e.g., cashier in a neighborhood store)	0.79	0.61
g) a colleague at work	0.39	0.61
h) a university student	0.75	0.86
i) a high school student	0.90	0.96

Table 5.2

Mean Pre- and Posttest Scores for Single Test Items on Test Task 2.2

Interlocutor Options	**EG means pretest**	**EG means Posttest**
a) a stranger (adult) you meet in the street	1.0	1.0
b) a stranger (teenager) you meet in the street	0.29	0.71
c) a stranger (child) you meet in the street	0.93	1.00
d) an extended family member (e.g., in laws)	0.04	0.18
e) a next-door neighbor	1.00	1.00
f) in a service encounter (e.g., cashier in grocery store)	0.96	0.96
g) a colleague at work	0.00	0.32
h) a university student	0.21	0.76
i) a high school student.	0.46	0.97

family member, a close friend, or a child, or the use of *Sie* in a service-encounter with a person one has never met before. This observation is consistent with findings from observational ILP studies where the learners showed the highest accuracy rates in informal situations that triggered the use of *du,* followed by formal situations that triggered the use of *Sie* as the only appropriate pronoun choice (Lemmerich, 2004; Lemmerich, 2005). Possible explanations for these findings are a) textbooks usually introduce learners to the T/V distinction as a dichotomy and provide straightforward examples in which only either one or the other form is appropriate; b) learners might show signs of pragmatic transfer from their L1 English where *you* equals *du;* and c) learners might feel more comfortable with formal address forms as a result of exposure to a formal register in the classroom setting.

(ii) The biggest improvement from the pre- to the posttest could be seen for the following two situations for both test tasks: interlocutor option g) when talking to a colleague at work, and option h) when talking to a university student. Both of these situations are rather ambiguous since address norms are the result of network practices, rather than based on individual factors such as age or power differences. However, address usage for both situations was covered in detail in unit 3 of the intervention by means of a variety of instructional activities, ranging from explicit, metapragmatic instructions, to purposeful listening, and metapragmatic discussion.

(iii) The smallest change from the pre- to the posttest could be seen for the following situation: when talking to an extended family member. As the NS baseline data showed, this also constitutes a rather ambiguous example. However, in this case, instruction was limited to explicit metapragmatic instruction. In short, the learners' ability to recognize contextually appropriate address pronouns for ambiguous situations only changed considerably when an in-depth treatment of these situations occurred during the intervention, and when a variety of instructional strategies were combined.

5.2.3 Test Section 3: Discourse Rating Task

In hypothesis H3, it was claimed that subsequent to the pedagogical intervention, judgments for the appropriateness of address forms in video-based native speaker conversations performed by the learners in the experimental group would be more native-like than judgments provided by the control group participants. This hypothesis could be confirmed. Information obtained from descriptive statistics showed that both groups received a pretest score of 0.76, but by the time of the posttest, the EG showed greater approximation to the NS norm (posttest score: 0.50) than the CG group (posttest score: 0.87), a difference that yielded a significant result. However, when examining the statistical significance of the posttest performance between groups, it became apparent that the intervention had differential effects on the various test tasks. Whereas the results were found to be significant for test task 3.1 and 3.2, they were not significant for test tasks 3.3. and 3.4. The question arises: why did the pedagogical intervention have such different effects on the various test tasks?

When attempting to explain differential effects across test items for test sections 2.1 and 2.2, the following argument was made: the learners' ability to recognize the appropriateness of address forms changed considerably only when an in-depth treatment of these situations occurred during the intervention, and when a variety of instructional strategies were combined. Considering the fact that the type of instructional strategies applied to the teaching of address usage was the same for all scenarios (with the exception of scenario 3), this argument does not sustain for most of test section 3. A detailed analysis of the descriptive statistics for each test tasks is necessary in order to find other plausible explanations.

Table 5.3 sums up the pre- and posttest scores obtained by the EG learners. As can be seen, the students showed the greatest development in their appropriateness ratings in test task 3.1, followed by task 3.2, 3. 4, and 3.3. A possible reason for the observed differences that instruction had on the learners' development across test tasks could be the level of ambiguity in the choice of address forms displayed in the different scenarios. For test task 3.1, the pool of NS agreed that the first conversation option was the only appropriate option, reflecting high agreement among the NS participants. For test task 3.2, however, two competing options were rated equally appropriate for both directions of the conversation, showing more room for ambiguity. Test task 3.3 constitutes a rather straight-forward example, in which the use of LN + *Sie* was the only choice, and finally, test task 3.4 showed the highest amount of disagreement among NS, making it the most ambiguous example of all. Based on this information, the explanation provided above (i.e., the greater the level of ambiguity in the choice of address forms displayed in the scenarios, the smaller the learners' development throughout the course of the intervention) can be maintained for all test tasks with the exception of test task 3.2. In this instance, the small improvement from pre- to posttest scores might be ascribed to the fact that it received relatively little attention in the instructional units. However, it could also be related to the fact that the learners already showed great approximation to the NS norm at the time of the pretest. Perhaps a high confidence level prior to the intervention hindered development.

Table 5.3

EG Pre- and Posttest Scores, Test Section 3

	Pretest Mean (*SD*)	**Posttest Mean (*SD*)**
Test Task 3.1 Student-student	EG: 1.37 (0.26)	EG: 0.52 (0.37)
Test Task 3.2 Student-professor	EG: 0.76 (0.34)	EG: 0.68 (0.37)
Test Task 3.3 Job applicant-receptionist	EG: 0.29 (0.15)	EG: 0.26 (0.26)
Test Task 3.4 Colleague, junior-colleague, senior	EG: 0.65 (0.24)	EG: 0.58 (0.28)

5.2.4 Summary

The main findings for test sections 1, 2, and for the quantitative component of test section 3 can be summarized as such: the pedagogical intervention had a positive effect on the learners' development of sociopragmatic competence, as exemplified by their significant improvement in their ability to recognize contextually appropriate address forms in a variety of situations. In addition, it became apparent that the impact of instruction varied across test tasks and test items. It could be observed that instruction had a larger effect when address usage in a particular situation showed less ambiguity, and/or when address usage in a particular situation was treated in depth and by means of a variety of instructional activities. A key component seemed to be the combination of metapragmatic instruction, purposeful listening, and metapragmatic discussion. On the other hand, metapragmatic instruction alone and/or a lack of presenting particular address terms in context yielded less considerable results. Whether these findings are consistent with results from previously conducted studies will be the content of Section 5.4. The following section provides an interpretation of findings obtained from the qualitative component of test section 3.3.

5.2.4 Section 3: Retrospective Comment Task

Hypothesis H3 stated that relevant explicit, metapragmatic information would guide the learners in the experimental group when deciding on the appropriateness of forms of address. After analyzing the learner comments obtained from the retrospective comment tasks (RCT), it became apparent that this hypothesis could be confirmed.

For this test task, the learners were asked to report what guided their decision-making when rating the appropriateness of several conversation options for the four different scenarios in test section 3. The analysis of the data yielded the following posttest results. The learners of both groups based their rating decisions on a variety of factors, such as the interlocutors' age, relative power, or level of familiarity. These factors had been identified in the L1 sociolinguistics literature as core factors contributing to sociopragmatic norms that lead to certain types of address behavior. It furthermore showed that, when deciding on the appropriateness of relevant forms of address, the learners in the EG made use of relevant explicit, metapragmatic information to a considerably larger degree than the control group participants. In addition, the EG learners based their explanations on a bigger variety of factors and provided a smaller amount of inappropriate explanations for certain types of address behavior than the CG participants. This information is illustrated in Figures 5.1 and 5.2.

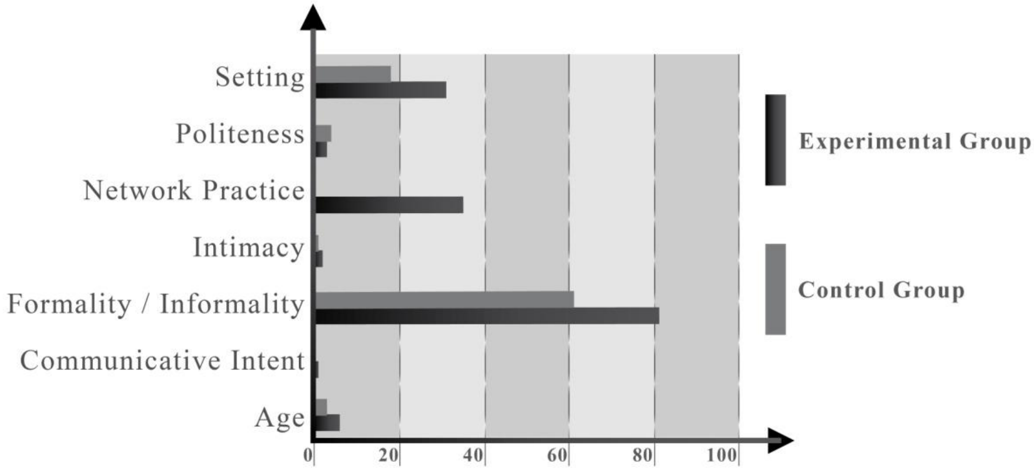

Figure 5.1: Relevant factors in RCTs

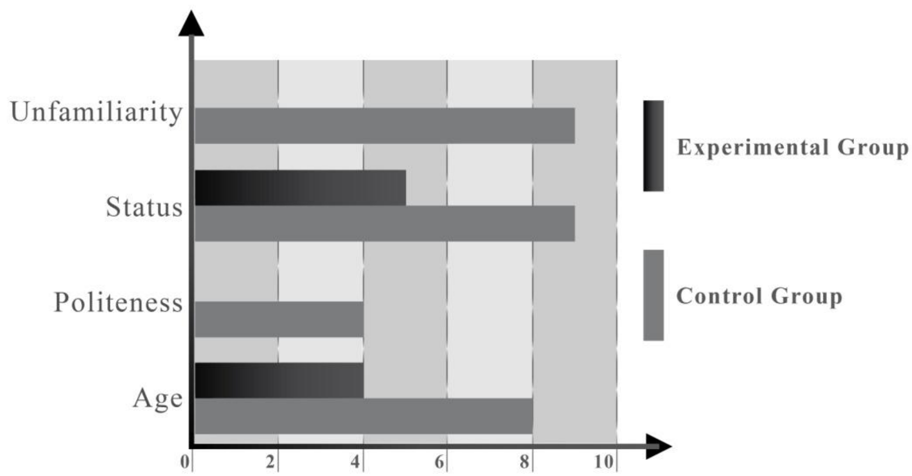

Figure 5.2: Unsuitable explanations in RCTs

All the findings described above point to a higher level of metapragmatic awareness on the part of the EG learners as a result of pragmatics instruction. More specifically, it can be argued that in many instances the EG learners' retrospective comments showed clear signs of 'understanding,' which according to Schmidt (1995), was defined as a learner's ability to recognize "a general principle, rule, or pattern in the input (p. 30; see Section 2.5.4 for a detailed discussion) and was contrasted to the lower level of 'noticing' or being aware of certain features in the input. By considering the amount of comments that had been classified as "irrelevant" (i.e., not addressing the question asked) when quantifying the retrospective comments, it becomes particularly clear that the CG group learners operated much more on the level of 'noticing' than the EG learners who in most instances had advanced to the higher level of 'understanding.'

However, it cannot be ignored that the CG group participants who received no pragmatics instruction during the time of the intervention also exhibited signs of 'understanding.' There are two possible explanations for this observation: (i) the learners made use of their L1 pragmatic knowledge, showing signs of positive transfer of sociopragmatic knowledge in instances where the social categorization patterns between their L1 and the TL were largely identical; (ii) some degree of 'understanding' resulted from previous classroom instruction.

One last point that requires explaining is the provision of inadequate explanations found in both learner groups (but to a greater extent in the CG's data). This phenomenon can best be accounted for by two possible sources: (i) negative sociopragmatic transfer from the learners' L1 in instances where the social categorization patterns between their L1 and the TL differed; and/or (ii) a negative impact of previous instruction on the learners' development of sociopragmatic awareness. To illustrate explanation (i), in test task 3.3 (student-professor interaction), many learners mentioned the professor's higher status as a justification to choose *du* + FN when addressing the student. However, in the NS judgments, this address option was rated as highly inappropriate, and associated with a certain degree of disrespect towards the student. The learners' choice of *du* + FN as the appropriate answer choice could be the result of negative sociopragmatic transfer from their L1 English, where professors indeed commonly address their students by their first names. The second argument made above is based on Sacia's (2009) findings from textbook review studies that showed that often, teaching materials do not provide sufficient information for address forms and that labels are at times misleading (see Section 2.4.2). The example she provided was the use of the term "polite" as opposed to "formal" when discussing the use of *Sie*. This, according to the author, can be misleading because the use of *Sie* can also be rude. Evidence for this argument stems from inadequate student explanations in test task 3.1. Here some learners made the point that the use of *Sie* when the senior is addressing the sophomore is a sign of politeness. However, as the NS data showed, it would more likely be interpreted as a sign of exclusion or impoliteness.

5.3 Integration of Main Findings

Many of the research findings from the present empirical study are consistent with previous findings that investigated the effects of instruction on L2 pragmatics learning. The following observation was made by Kasper and Rose (2002): "pragmatic functions and relevant contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed despite prolonged exposure" (p. 237). Therefore, they suggest learners may benefit from some type of instruction. What type of instruction is most beneficial for pragmatics learning was investigated in a variety of classroom-based intervention studies. Kasper and Rose's (2002) comprehensive review of these studies clearly showed that "without exception, learners receiving instruction in pragmatics outperformed those who did not" (p. 256). In particular, they found that explicit teaching was most beneficial for L2 pragmatics learning. This general finding can be supported by the present study, which clearly showed a positive effect of explicit instruction on the development of sociopragmatic competence.

In addition to this general finding, more specific observations of the effects of pragmatics instruction adopting an explicit approach were made in a variety of research studies. Relevant points already discussed in Chapter 2 were: (i) some elements of discourse are more amenable to explicit instruction than others (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Olshtain & Cohen, 1991); (ii) certain types of explicit instruction might be more beneficial than others (Rose & Kwai-Fun, 2001); and (iii) certain aspects of pragmatic are already teachable at the beginning level (Wildner-Bassett, 1994).

The first observation was made in studies by Olshtain and Cohen (1991) and Liddicoat and Crozet (2001), who found that explicit instruction resulted in different learning outcomes depending on the targeted aspect of discourse. The first study suggested that explicit instruction has a positive effect on the learning of pragmalinguistic features, but not on the learning of sociopragmatics; contrary to this finding was the observation made in the second study, which showed that macro-level aspects are more easily teachable than structural elements. The present study revealed that the pedagogical intervention had had positive effects on both the learning of pragmalinguistic features (focus of test section 1), as well as the learning of sociopragmatics (focus of test sections 2 and 3), and therefore suggests that the type of instruction chosen constitutes beneficial learning opportunities for both aspects of sociopragmatic competence.

The second finding stems from a study conducted by Rose and Kwai-Fun (2001) who claimed that certain types of explicit instruction might be more beneficial than others. In their study, both inductive and deductive instruction led to gains in pragmalinguistic knowledge but only deductive instruction seemed to be effective for the development of sociopragmatic proficiency. This specific claim can neither be affirmed nor disproved by the findings of the present study since it utilized a combination of inductive and deductive instruction. However, what could be seen was that different types of instructional strategies were more or less effective for pragmatics learning, hinting to a similar point, namely that not all types of instruction result in the same learning outcomes.

Yet another relevant observation was made in Wildner-Bassett's (1994) research on the learning of routine formulas by beginning-level learners of German. She found that certain instructional items are indeed teachable at such an early level as long as "no real analysis of the form be undertaken" (p. 7), and that the learners showed greater signs of sociolinguistic sensitivity subsequent to the intervention. The present study also shows that pragmatics instruction early in the learning process can be beneficial to learners. However, it might be that only structurally simple elements can be taught, an argument that was originally made by Lyster (1994).

5.4 Limitations and Future Directions

5.4.1 Research Focus

The results of the present study support the benefits of explicit, awareness-raising activities in L2 pragmatic instruction. Relevant linguistic features are often not noticed by the learners unless specifically pointed out. Input can only become intake, however, once it is noticed and comprehended (see Schmidt, 1995). Although the findings in the present study support the notion of 'noticing' as a prerequisite for learning, it is limited in the sense that it does not show how being aware of and understanding relevant features in the input are related to actual production or use of the target language. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Dörney (1998), "higher pragmatic awareness does not necessarily translate into appropriate pragmatic production" (p. 254). Even ESL learners who show a high degree of sensitivity toward pragmatic violations in the target language still deviate from native-like production. It can therefore be concluded that awareness might be a necessary but not "sufficient condition for the development of pragmatic competence" (p. 255).

This assumption is supported by other research in the field of Second Language acquisition and might hold true for acquisition in general. Future research should thus contain a component that, in addition to measuring learners' sociopragmatic abilities on the perceptive level, also assesses students' ability to produce appropriate language in a variety of contexts. Ideally, the second component should be targeted at a later time, in order to gain some insight into the two dimensions of language acquisition as separate entities and their relationship to each other.

5.4.2 Research Design

5.4.2.1 Pedagogical intervention. Delivering the learning content of the pedagogical intervention in a web-based format had many advantages. It provided the option to make use of different types of multimedia and thus to present the pragmatic utterances in a more authentic manner than traditional forms of printed material. From a pedagogical perspective, it had the benefit of exposing all participants in the experimental group to exactly the same learning content, despite the fact that they were signed up for different sections of the second-semester German course. This also resulted in greater external reliability of the study. In addition, this medium of delivery also constituted an advantage for various practical reasons.

However, besides the many positive aspects of a web-based intervention, there were also several drawbacks to this approach. Student recruitment was much more challenging than expected since not all students who had originally signed up completed all units, resulting in a good amount of drop-outs, and a high rate of unpredictability concerning the outcome of the study. In addition, the web-based format created a certain amount of anonymity between the student participants and the researcher, and it was more difficult to get a sense of the emotional impact the intervention had on the students than it would have been in a regular course setting where course instructors form meaningful relationships with their students. Also, despite the usefulness of written retrospective comment tasks for metapragmatic discussion, a traditional teacher-led class discussion might have resulted in a higher rate of noticing and understanding. To better understand the impact of the medium, future research could entail using the same instructional materials that were developed for the present investigation in a classroom-based research project and compare the learning outcomes.

5.4.2.2. Test design. Kasper and Roever (2005) argue that, particularly in an academic field such as Interlanguage Pragmatics, which they described as “an inherently context-sensitive domain of language use” (p. 330), possible method effects are a particular concern” (p. 330). Method effects, according to Becker (1994), exist “when the true relationships among variables of interest ("traits") are obscured by the fact that the variables were measured by the same method” (p. 1) and are of concern to researchers in the social and behavioral sciences because they negatively affect the validity of research instruments. Validity refers to the extent to which the findings can be “accurately interpreted” (internal validity) and “effectively generalized” (external validity; Brown and Rodgers, 2002, p. 241). In order to ensure validity, and to gain a greater understanding of the phenomenon under investigation, the data collection instruments developed for the present study were based on a mixed-method design, consisting of a quantitative and a qualitative component. Also, in order to ensure investigator triangulation, the qualitative data were analyzed by two independent raters.

However, additional types of triangulation would have increased validity. Ideally, neither of the two raters for the qualitative components should have been me. As Gass and Mackey (2000) argue, “there is often a relatively high level of interpretation in relation to data obtained through stimulated recall,” and interrater reliability can easily be affected when one of the raters was highly involved in designing the test task (p. 65). Thus, they advise to use objective, nonresearcher raters when possible.

Other types of triangulation that would have resulted in greater validity but were not feasible for the present study are time triangulation and location triangulation. ‘Time triangulation,' according to Brown and Rodgers (2002), is defined as the use of "multiple occasions to gather data," such as the beginning, middle, and end of a school term. Location triangulation refers to the use of "multiple sites to gather data" (p. 244). All of these criteria could be considered in a future study by including delayed posttests, in order to see if the effects of instruction are long-term, and by addressing issues of motivation and attitude by working with a different group of learners. In addition, an even greater variety of data gathering devices could be used in order to ensure 'methodological triangulation' (Brown & Rodgers, 2002, p. 244) and a larger amount of test task in order to maximize external validity.

5.5 Implications

As has been argued, language teaching materials often lack precise, authentic information about sociolinguistic variation. In fact, Durrell (2003) claims, based on his careful examination of a leading German textbook *Themen Neu*, that register variation has widely been ignored in teaching materials for L2 German. If teachers are largely unable to rely on information provided in pedagogical materials, it is imperative that they have solid knowledge of pragmatic theory underlying pedagogical decisions, curriculum design, and material development. In order to identify learning tasks, it is also necessary to know how L2 learners go about acquiring pragmatic competence, what kinds of pragmatic information are easy or difficult to learn, to what extent learners rely on their L1 pragmatic knowledge to help them acquire pragmatic competence in the L2, how successful pragmatic transfer can be in terms of communicative outcomes, and what developmental paths learners go through in their acquisition of pragmatic competence (Kasper, 1997).

This study makes valuable contributions to the fields of L2 pedagogy and L2 teacher education with regards to the teaching of pragmatics. It provides an example of how data obtained from L1 sociolinguistics research can constitute a relevant source for L2 teaching material development, and thus not only contributes to the discussion of a pedagogical norm (whether variable forms should be taught and if so, to what extent and in what way), but also models how a pedagogical norm can be put into practice.

It furthermore shows how sociolinguistic competence can be an attainable instructional goal for beginning-level learners by first focusing on the development of receptive skills and metapragmatic knowledge before shifting to the development of productive skills later in the learning process. Due to its focus on address forms in L2 German, a learning target that had not been investigated before in the context of a pedagogical intervention, it widens the scope of teachable pragmalinguistic features and sociolinguistics norms. At the same time, it illustrates an instructional method that can be applied to the teaching of other pragmatic features as well, and hereby constitutes as a basis for course design and curriculum development.

5.6 Conclusion

This study examines the effects of an explicit awareness-raising approach on the development of sociopragmatic competence in early foreign language learners. It addresses the general issue of the teachability of sociolinguistic variation in the foreign language classroom, regarding which aspects of variation to teach, as well as how and when to teach them. More specifically, it tackles the question whether a pedagogical intervention focused on the teaching of address forms, an instance of sociopragmatic variation, is beneficial for L2 beginning-level learners. As the research findings show, this question can be answered positively. Subsequent to the intervention, the experimental group learners showed considerable improvement regarding their ability to recognize and reflect on contextually-appropriate address forms. The findings show that learners are able to employ metapragmatic information obtained by means of instruction, which results in a more native-like performance.

This study was motivated by the belief that sociolinguistic variation should be integrated into early foreign language instruction. An understanding of sociolinguistic variation equips learners with two important abilities, namely to appropriately respond to as well as actively shape their environment. It is based on the view that communication is more than denoting referential meaning, but rather that we communicate in order to also express something about ourselves in relation to others. A precondition for being able to choose appropriate linguistic features as required by the situational context or a speaker's communicative intent is an awareness of the different variants one may select from and the underlying rules of use that govern which variants are appropriate in what situation. It is thus imperative for successful language instruction to introduce learning opportunities that raise learners' awareness of the different options of strategies that they can apply either in order to compensate for gaps in their knowledge system or to enhance the effectiveness of communication. The earlier in the learning process students are exposed to sociolinguistic variation, the bigger the likelihood that they will develop sociolinguistic sensitivity, a stepping-stone to sociolinguistic competence.

APPENDIX A

ONLINE SURVEY ON ADDRESS BEHAVIOR IN GERMAN

Original Version:

Anredeformen im Deutschen: Teil 1
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=g_2ftV_2bPWd61_2fo5yL_2ftCqeew_3d_3d

Die folgendeUmfrage geht um Anredeformen im Deutschen. Bitte kreuze für jede Frage alle zutreffenden Antworten an (mindestens eine Antwort pro Frage).

Stelle dir vor, dass du die angesprochene Person ein wenig kennst. Ihr seid also weder Fremde, noch gute Bekannte.

Zu den Personen:
Susanne ist Mitte 20,
Frau Klein Mitte 30, und
Professor Burgschmidt Mitte 40.

Vielen Dank fürs Mitmachen!

1. Wie alt bist du?

- ☐ 20-30
- ☐ 30-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ 50-60
- ☐ 60-70
- ☐ über 70

2. Woher kommst du?

- ☐ Deutschland
- ☐ Österreich
- ☐ Schweiz

3. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Hi, Susanne!
- [ ] Hi, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Hi, Professor Burgschmidt!

4. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Grüβ Gott, Susanne!
- [ ] Grüβ Gott, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Grüβ Gott, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Grüβ Gott" nicht vertraut.

5. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Hallo, Susanne!
- [ ] Hallo, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Hallo, Professor Burgschmidt!

6. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Servus, Susanne!
- [ ] Servus, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Servus, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Servus" nicht vertraut.

7. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Grüß dich, Susanne!
- [ ] Grüß dich, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Grüß dich, Professor Burgschmidt!

8. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Moin, Susanne!
- [ ] Moin, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Moin, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Moin" nicht vertraut.

9. Welche der folgenden Begrüßungen klingen für dich akzeptabel?

- [ ] Grüezi, Susanne!

- [ ] Grüezi, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Grüezi, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Grüezi" nicht vertraut.

Anredeformen im Deutschen: Teil 2
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=6aNLmowUPBkgV3Tr1sgbag_3d_3d

1. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Hi, wie geht's?
- [ ] Hi, wie geht es Ihnen?

2. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Hallo, wie geht's?
- [ ] Hallo, wie geht es Ihnen?

3. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Hallöchen, wie geht’s?
- [ ] Hallöchen, wie geht es Ihnen?

4. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Guten Tag, wie geht's?
- [ ] Guten Tag, wie geht es Ihnen?

5. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Servus, wie geht's?
- [ ] Servus, wie geht es Ihnen?
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Servus" nicht vertraut.

6. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Grüβ Gott, wie geht's?
- [ ] Grüβ Gott, wie geht es Ihnen?
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Grüβ Gott" nicht vertraut.

7. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?
- [ ] Moin, wie geht's?
- [ ] Moin, wie geht es Ihnen?

☐ Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Moin" nicht vertraut.

8. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?

☐ Grüβ dich, wie geht's?

☐ Grüβ dich, wie geht es Ihnen?

9. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?

☐ Grüezi, wie geht's?

☐ Grüezi, wie geht es Ihnen?

☐ Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Grüezi" nicht vertraut.

10. Welche der folgenden Begrüβungen findest du akzeptabel?

☐ Tach, wie geht's?

☐ Tach, wie geht es Ihnen?

<u>English Translation</u>

Forms of Address in German: Part 1
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=g_2ftV_2bPWd61_2fo5yL_2ftCqeew_3d_3d

Note: Translations of German greetings are given unless there is no equivalent in English. In this case, a short explanation concerning the usage of the greeting is provided. For a detailed description of each greeting, including its occurrence (time of day, situational context), and its co-occurrence options with pronominal and nominal forms of address, please refer to Table 2.6 in the main part of the document.

The following survey is about address forms in German. For all questions, please check the appropriate answers (minimum of one answer per question).

Imagine that you know the person you are addressing a little. Yor are neither strangers nor good friends.

About the people:
Susanne is in her mid-20s,
Mrs. Klein in her mid-30s, and
Professor Burgschmidt in her mid-40s.

1. How old are you?

- ☐ 20-30
- ☐ 30-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ 50-60
- ☐ 60-70
- ☐ over 70

2. Where are you from?

- ☐ Germany
- ☐ Austria
- ☐ Switzerland

3. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- ☐ Hi, Susanne!
- ☐ Hi, Frau Klein!
- ☐ Hi, Professor Burgschmidt!

4. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- ☐ Grüβ Gott*, Susanne!
- ☐ Grüβ Gott*, Frau Klein!
- ☐ Grüβ Gott*, Professor Burgschmidt!
- ☐ I am not familiar with the greeting.

**Grüβ Gott* is a non-time-specific greeting commonly used greeting formula in southern Germany and Austria in all kinds of situations.

5. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- ☐ Hello, Susanne!
- ☐ Hello, Frau Klein!
- ☐ Hello, Professor Burgschmidt!

6. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- ☐ Servus*, Susanne!
- ☐ Servus*, Frau Klein!
- ☐ Servus*, Professor Burgschmidt!

- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

**Servus* is a non-time-specific casual greeting used in southern German and Austria during brief encounters in the street and/or shops and is more likely used among younger people.

7. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Grüß dich*, Susanne!
- [ ] Grüß dich*, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Grüß dich*, Professor Burgschmidt!

* *Grüß dich* is a non-time-specific greeting used in familiar settings between friends, and acquaintances, independent of age.

8. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Moin*, Susanne!
- [ ] Moin*, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Moin*, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

**Moin* is a non-time-specific greeting commonly used in northern Germany in all kinds of situations.

9. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Grüezi*, Susanne!
- [ ] Grüezi*, Frau Klein!
- [ ] Grüezi*, Professor Burgschmidt!
- [ ] Ich bin mit der Verwendung von "Grüezi" nicht vertraut.

* *Grüezi* is a non-time-specific greeting commonly used in Switzerland in all kinds of situations.

Forms of Address in German: Part 2
http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=6aNLmowUPBkgV3Tr1sgbag_3d_3d

1. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Hi, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Hi, how are you (V)?

2. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Hello, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Hello, how are you (V)?

3. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Hallöchen*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Hallöchen*, how are you (V)?

* *Hallöchen* is a casual variant of *Hallo* and is used in familiar settings.

4. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Guten Tag*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Guten Tag*, how are you (V)?

**Guten Tag* is the equivalent of “hello“ but used in formal situations.

5. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Servus*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Servus*, how are you (V)?
- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

**Servus* is a non-time-specific casual greeting used in southern German and Austria during brief encounters in the street and/or shops and is more likely used among younger people.

6. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Grüβ Gott*, how are you?
- [ ] Grüβ Gott*, how are you?
- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

**Grüβ Gott* is a non-time-specific greeting commonly used greeting formula in southern Germany and Austria in all kinds of situations

7. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Moin, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Moin, how are you (V)?
- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

8. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you

- [ ] Grüβ dich*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Grüβ dich*, how are you (V)?

* *Grüß dich* is a non-time-specific greeting used in familiar settings between friends, and acquaintances, independent of age.

9. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Grüezi*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Grüezi*, how are you (V)?
- [ ] I am not familiar with the greeting.

* *Grüezi* is a non-time-specific greeting commonly used in Switzerland in all kinds of situations.

10. Which of the following greetings sound acceptable to you?

- [ ] Tach*, how are you (T)?
- [ ] Tach*, how are you (V)?

**Tach* is a more casual variant of *Guten Tag.*

APPENDIX B

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONNAIRE

Your name: ____

Your email address: ____

How old are you? __________

Are you an □ undergraduate or a □ graduate student?

You are taking second-semester German for the following reason(s):

German Major German Minor Language requirement
Other (please specify)

Are you currently taking any German classes other than second-semester German? Please list:

For how many semesters have you been studying German and in which institutions?

Years Institution Hours per week

Have you ever spent some time in a German-speaking country and if so, why?
□ No
□ Yes
Amount of time Location Purpose

Do you use German outside the classroom (e.g., do you read German books, watch German movies, have German friends or family members?, etc.). Please elaborate.

What is your native language?

Did you grow up speaking more than one native language? If yes, which language?

□ No □Yes

Language(s): ________________________

Do you know any other foreign language(s) besides German? If yes which language(s)? Are you a beginning, intermediate or advanced learner of the language(s)?

□ No □Yes

Language 1 ______________________ Language 2 ___________________

Level □ Beginning Level: □ Beginning

□ Intermediate □ Intermediate

□ Advanced □ Advanced

APPENDIX C

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK

Original Version:

1. Wie alt bist du?

☐ 20-30

☐ 30-40

☐ 40-50

☐ 50-60

☐ 60-70

☐ über 70

2. Woher kommst du?

☐ Deutschland

☐ Österreich

☐ Schweiz

☐ Andere Herkunft

Die folgende Umfrage geht um Anredeformen im Deutschen. Das Ganze funktioniert folgendermaβen: Es werden verschiedene Szenarien beschrieben. Entscheide für jedes Szenario, was du sagen würdest. Deine Antwort soll authentisch sein, also schreibe, was du wirklich sagen würdest, nicht was am meisten irgendwelchen Normen entspricht!

Vielen Dank fürs Mitmachen!

3. Szenario A:
Ein Student (Mitte 20) spricht nach der ersten Unterrichtsstunde im Semester mit seinem Professor (der Name des Professors ist Peter Neuhauser; er ist Mitte 40). Der Student möchte wissen, ob er die ältere Auflage des Lehrbuches verwenden kann.
Wie spricht er seinen Professor an?/ Was sagt er zu ihm?

4. Szenario B:
Eine Frau (Ende 20) wurde gerade als Lehrkraft bei einem Fremdspracheninstitut eingestellt. Vor der ersten Unterrichtsstunde geht sie ins Kopierzimmer. Dort trifft sie eine Kollegin (auch Ende 20), mit der sie noch nie gesprochen hat. Sie begrüβt die Kollegin, stellt sich ihr vor und fragt die Kollegin nach ihrem Namen.
Was sagt sie?

5. Szenario C:
Zwei Studenten (Anfang 20) machen ein Seminar zusammen. Nach dem Unterricht geht ein Student auf den anderen zu, um zu fragen, ob er Lust hat, eine Referatsgruppe zu bilden.
Die beiden Studenten kennen sich vom Sehen, haben aber noch nie zuvor miteinander gesprochen.
Wie beginnt der Student die Unterhaltung?/ Was sagt er?

6. Szenario D:
Eine Studentin (Mitte 20) geht ins Unicafe, wo eine Diskussionsgruppe stattfindet. Die Diskussionsgruppe wird von einer Doktorandin (Anfang 30) geleitet. Heute ist das erste Treffen. Die Studentin setzt sich an den Tisch, begrüβt die Doktorandin und stellt sich kurz vor. Sie weiβ nicht, ob sie die Doktorandin duzen kann.
Was sagt sie?

7. Szenario E:
Die gleiche Studentin (siehe Szenario D) trifft die Doktorandin abends auf der Uniparty. Sie begrüβt sie und fragt sie, wie ihr die Party gefällt.
Was sagt sie?

8. Szenario F:
Eine Frau (Ende 20) hat einen Termin für ein Bewerbungsgespräch als Lehrkraft an einem Fremdspracheninstitut. Sie kommt an der Rezeption an und möchte Bescheid geben, dass sie angekommen ist.
Was sagt sie zur Rezeptionistin (Mitte 20)?

English Translation:

Note: the English translations are only provided here for the purpose of illustration but were not included in the actual test.

1. How old are you?

- ☐ 20-30
- ☐ 30-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ 50-60
- ☐ 60-70
- ☐ über 70

2. Where are you from?

- ☐ Germany
- ☐ Austria
- ☐ Switzerland
- ☐ Other

The following survey is about address forms in German. This is how this works. You will be given several scenarios. For each scenario, decide what you would say. Your answer should be authentic, meaning that you should write what you would actually say, rather than trying to stick to particular norms!

Thank you for participating!

Scenario A:
A university student (midtwenties) is talking to his professor at the end of the first class meeting of the semester (the professor's name is Peter Neuhauser); he is in his midforties). The student would like to know if it is okay to use the older edition of the textbook. How does he address his professor? / What does he say to him?

4. Scenario B:
A woman (late twenties) was just hired as an instructor at a foreign language institute. Before her first lesson, she enters the copy room. There she bumps into a colleague of hers (also in her late twenties) who she has never talked to before. She greets the colleague, introduces herself and asks the colleague what her name is.

5. Scenario C:
Two university students (early twenties) both attend the same class. After the lecture one student approaches the other in order to ask if he would like to work with her in a team for the upcoming presentation. The students have seen each other before but have never spoken to each other. Who does the student start the conversation? What does he say?

6. Scenario D:
A student (mid twenties) enters the student lounge; this is where her discussion group meets. The instructor of the discussion group is a doctoral student (early thirties). Today is the first meeting. The student sits down, greets the instructor and introduces herself. She isn't sure about how to address the instructor. What does she say?

7. Scenario E:
The same student (see scenario D) bumps into the doctoral student at a university party. She greets her and asks her how she likes the party. What does she say?

8. Scenario F:
A woman (late twenties) has an appointment for an interview as an instructor at a foreign language institute. She approaches the reception desk and wants to let the receptionist know that she has arrived. What does she say to the receptionist (mid twenties)?

APPENDIX D

SCENARIOS IN TESTS

Scenario 1: "Two university students talking to each other after class"

<u>The participants:</u>
Two undergraduate students attend the same class in German literature. One of the students is a sophomore and the other student a senior. They have seen each other in class for the past six weeks but have never actually talked to each other before.

<u>What happens:</u>
The sophomore approaches the senior after class in order to ask for help with her presentation which she will have to give in three weeks. She introduces herself and tells her what she wants. The senior agrees to help her and they set up a time and place to meet. Then they say good-bye and leave.

<u>Instructions and response options:</u>
Part a: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following conversation starters when the sophomore addresses the senior? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Hallo. Ich weiβ nicht, ob du mich kennst. Ich bin Janina. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich wollte dich was fragen, und zwar...
Hell (informal). I don't know if you know me. My name is Janina. We are both in this class. I have a question for you (T)

Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Janina Mählmann. Ich weiβ nicht, ob Sie mich kennen. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich wollte Sie etwas fragen, und zwar…
Hello (formal). My name is Janina Mählmann. I don't know if you (V) know me. We are both in this class. I would like to ask you (V) a question, …

Hey du. Schön, dich wieder zu sehen. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich hab' da mal 'ne Frage, und zwar…
Hey you. Nice to see you (T) again. We are both in this class. I have a quick question for you (T), …

Part b: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following conversation options when the senior responds to the sophomore? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Hi Janina. Ich bin Astrid. Ja, ich kann dir gerne helfen.
Hi Janina. My name is Astrid. Sure, I can help you (T).

Hallo, Janina. Ich kann Ihnen gerne helfen.
Hello(informal) Janina. Sure, I can help you (V).

Guten Tag, Frau Mählmann. Ich bin Frau Schulz. Ich kann Ihnen gerne helfen.
Hello (formal), Ms. Mählmann. My name is Ms. Schulz. Sure, I can help you (V).

Scenario 2: "A university student talking to her professor during her office hour"

<u>The participants:</u>
An undergraduate student visits her professor during her office hour. She has a few questions about an upcoming presentation that she has to give in her professor's class on German contemporary literature. The student has been in the professor's class for six weeks but has never talked to her in private.

<u>What happens:</u>
She enters the professor's office, introduces herself (her name, which class she is taking at the moment). Then she tells the professor why she came to see her. The professor gives her some advice. Finally, the student leaves the office.

<u>Instructions and response options:</u>
Part a: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following conversation starters when the undergraduate student addresses her professor? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Guten Tag, Professor Weigand. Ich bin Janina Mählmann, studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei Ihnen im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu meinem Referat.
Hello (formal), professor Weigand. My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (V) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.

Hallo, wie geht's? Mein Name ist Janina. Ich studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei dir im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu meinem Referat.
Hello (informal), how are you (T)? My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (T) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.

Hallo, Frau Weigand. Mein Name ist Janina Mählmann. Ich studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei Ihnen im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu

meinem Referat.
Hello (informal), Ms. Weigand. My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (V) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.

Part b: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following dialogue options when the professor responds to her student? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Hallo, Frau Mählmann. Wie kann ich Ihnen helfen?
Hello (informal), Ms. Mählmann. How can I help you (V)?

Hallo, Janina. Wie kann ich Ihnen helfen?
Hello (informal), Janina. How can I help you (V)?

Hallo, Janina. Wie kann ich dir helfen?
Hello (informal), Ms. Mählmann. How can I help you (T)?

Scenario 3: "At the reception of a German language institute"

The participants:
A woman who has applied for a teaching position is talking to the receptionist of a German language institute. They have never met before.

What happens:
The woman approaches the reception desk, tells the receptionist her name, and that she has an appointment for an interview. The receptionist then tells her that the interviewer is still in a meeting and to please wait in the lounge.

Instructions and response options:
Part a: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following conversation starters when the woman addresses the receptionist? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider und ich habe einen Termin fű̈r ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Können Sie mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss?
Hello (formal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (V) help me and tell me where I need to go?

Hallo. Ich bin die Monika und habe einen Termin fű̈r ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Kannst du mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss?
Hello (informal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (T) help me and tell me where I need to go?

Hallo. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider und ich habe einen Termin fűr ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Können Sie mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss? Hello (informal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (V) help me and tell me where I need to go? Part b: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following dialogue options when the receptionist responds to the woman? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate. Guten Tag, Frau Schneider. Bei wem haben Sie denn Ihren Termin? *Hello (formal), Ms. Schneider. Who do you (V) have the appointment with?* Hallo, Monika. Bei wem hast du denn deinen Termin? *Hello (informal), Monika. Who do you (T) have the appointment with?* Hallo, Frau Schneider. Bei wem haben Sie denn Ihren Termin? *Hello (informal), Ms. Schneider. Who do you (V) have the appointment with?*
Scenario 4: "Colleagues at a German Language Institute" <u>The participants:</u> Two instructors of German as a foreign language work at a language institute. One of the instructors has already worked there for three years. The other instructor was just hired. Today is the new instructor's first teaching day. <u>What happens:</u> The new instructor approaches the other instructor in the copy room. They have never talked to each other before. She first introduces herself and says that she is new. She then asks the other instructor what her name is and how long she has been teaching at the institute. Finally she states that she has to go to her classroom in order to set everything up, says good-bye and leaves the room. <u>Instructions and response options:</u> Part a: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following conversation starters when the new instructor addresses the other instructor? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate. Hallo! Hi, ich bin die Monika. Ich bin neu hier. *Hello (informal)! Hi, I am Monika. I am new here.* Hallo! Ich bin Monika Schneider und bin neu hier. *Hello (informal). I am Monika Schneider and I am new here.*

Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider. Ich bin neu hier.
Hello (formal). My name is Monika Schneider. I am new here.

Part b: How appropriate or inappropriate are the following dialogue options when the instructor responds to the new instructor? Rate each option. Then explain in the comment box how you arrived at your decision. Note: several options might be equally (in)appropriate.

Hallo Monika, ich bin Claudia. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass du heute hier anfängst.
Hello (informal) Monika, I am Claudia. Great! I have already heard that you (T)are starting today.
Hallo, ich bin Claudia Wickert. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass Sie heute hier anfangen.
Hello (informal), I am Claudia Wickert! Great! I have already heard that you (V) are starting today.

Guten Tag, Frau Schneider. Mein Name ist Claudia Wickert. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass Sie heute hier anfangen.
Hello (formal), Ms. Schneider. My name is Claudia Wickert. Great! I have already heard that you (V) are starting today.

APPENDIX E

SCENARIOS IN INSTRUCTIONAL UNITS

Instructional Unit 3, Situation Type 1: "Two university students talking to each other after class"

The participants:
Two undergraduate students attend the same class in German literature. One of the students is a sophomore and the other student a senior. They have seen each other in class for the past six weeks but have never actually talked to each other before.

What happens:
The sophomore approaches the senior after class in order to ask for help with her presentation which she will have to give in three weeks. She introduces herself and tells her what she wants. The senior agrees to help her and they set up a time and place to meet. Then they say good-bye and leave.

Instructional Unit 3, Situation Type 2: "A university student talking to her professor during her office hour"

The participants:
An undergraduate student visits her professor during her office hour. She has a few questions about an upcoming presentation that she has to give in her professor's class on German contemporary literature. The student has been in the professor's class for six weeks but has never talked to her in private.

What happens:
She enters the professor's office, introduces herself (her name, which class she is taking at the moment). Then she tells the professor why she came to see her. The professor gives her some advice. Finally, the student leaves the office.

Instructional Unit 3, Situation Type 3: “During an informal university discussion group”

The participants:
An undergraduate student joins another woman who is a doctoral student as well as the

instructor of an informal university discussion group.

What happens:
The undergraduate student thinks that the other woman is also a student. In the course of the conversation, they solve the misunderstanding and agree on what address forms to use in the context of the discussion group. At the end of the interaction, the instructor leaves in order to get her attendance list which she had accidentally left in her office.

Instructional Unit 3, Situation Type 4: "Two colleagues at a foreign language institute"

The participants:
Two instructors of German as a foreign language work at a language institute. One of the instructors has already worked there for three years. The other instructor was just hired. Today is the new instructor's first teaching day.

What happens:
The new instructor approaches the other instructor in the copy room. They have never talked to each other before. She first introduces herself and says that she is new. She then asks the other instructor what her name is and how long she has been teaching at the institute. Finally, she states that she has to go to her classroom in order to set everything up, says good-bye and leaves the room.

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY OF NS BASELINE DATA

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Response Options for Test Task 3.1</th><th>Mean NS Rating

1= inappropriate
2= somewhat inappropriate
3= somewhat appropriate
4=appropriate</th><th>Relevant Factors</th></tr>
<tr><td>A</td><td>Hallo. Ich weiß nicht, ob du mich kennst. Ich bin Janina. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich wollte dich was fragen, und zwar...
Hello (informal). I don’t know if you know me. My name is Janina. We are both in this class. I have a question for you (T)</td><td>3.96</td><td>Appropriate because…
Age (same age; both relatively young)
Familiarity (have seen each other before)
Formality (appropriate amount; not too stiff)
Group membership (same class, both students)
Setting (university)</td></tr>
<tr><td>B</td><td>Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Janina Mählmann. Ich weiß nicht, ob Sie mich kennen. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich wollte Sie etwas fragen, und zwar…
Hello (formal). My name is Janina Mählmann. I don’t know if you (V) know me. We are both in this class. I would like to ask you (V) a question, …</td><td>1.61</td><td>Inappropriate because…
Formality (too official; too formal)
Group membership (both students)</td></tr>
<tr><td>C</td><td>Hey du. Schön, dich wieder zu sehen. Wir sind beide in diesem Kurs. Ich hab’ da mal ‘ne Frage, und zwar…
Hey you. Nice to see you (T) again.</td><td>2.43</td><td>Appropriate because…
Attitude / Personality (could be used to show how “cool” somebody is)</td></tr>
</table>

	We are both in this class. I have a quick question for you (T),…		*Inappropriate because…* Attitude (A bit too “cool”) Informality (too casual) Naturalness (seems unnatural) Unfamiliarity (first encounter)
D	Hi Janina. Ich bin Astrid. Ja, ich kann dir gerne helfen. *Hi Janina. My name is Astrid. Sure, I can help you (T).*	4.00	*Appropriate because…* Age (same age) Equality Formality (appropriate amount) Group membership (same class) Naturalness (seems natural) Setting (university setting determines informal address form)
E	Hallo, Janina. Ich kann Ihnen gerne helfen. *Hello (informal) Janina. Sure, I can help you (V).*	1.71	*Inappropriate because…* Equality (same hierarchical level) Formality (too stiff) Naturalness (sounds awkward) Setting (university students don’t use the combination of first name + “Sie”; only used in workplace; sounds too old for student setting)
F	Guten Tag, Frau Mählmann. Ich bin Frau Schulz. Ich kann Ihnen gerne helfen. *Hello (formal), Ms. Mählmann. My name is Ms. Schulz. Sure, I can help you (V).*	1.18	*Inappropriate because…* Age (too young) Formality (too formal) Group membership (students) Social distance (unnecessarily distanced) Naturalness (unnatural; artificial)

Response Options for Test Task 3.2		**Mean NS Rating**	**Relevant Factors**
A	Guten Tag, Professor Weigand. Ich bin Janina Mählmann, studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei Ihnen im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu meinem Referat. *Hello (formal), professor Weigand. My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (V) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.*	3.96	*Appropriate because…* Age Politeness Respect Unfamiliarity (first encounter requires use of title)

B	Hallo, wie geht's? Mein Name ist Janina. Ich studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei dir im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu meinem Referat. *Hello (informal), how are you (T)? My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (T) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.*	1.00	*Inappropriate because…* Informality (too casual) Intimacy (would overstep professor-student boundary) Unfamiliarity (they don't know each other personally) Naturalness (sloppy) Respect (disrespectful)
C	Hallo, Frau Weigand. Mein Name ist Janina Mählmann. Ich studiere im dritten Semester und bin bei Ihnen im Kurs "Deutsche Nachkriegsliteratur". Ich habe einige Fragen zu meinem Referat. *Hello (informal), Ms. Weigand. My name is Janina Mählman, I am in my third semester and am enrolled in your (V) course on Postwar German literature. I have a few questions regarding my upcoming presentation.*	3.32	*Appropriate because…* Age (professor is young) Attitude (use of "hallo" and "Frau" okay because of friendly relaxed atmosphere portrayed in the video-clip; "Hallo" signals friendliness) *Inappropriate because…* Informality (the use of "hallo" is too casual) Respect (might offend the professor by omitting title) Unfamiliarity (because they have never talked to each other before)
D	Hallo, Frau Mählmann. Wie kann ich Ihnen helfen? *Hello (informal), Ms. Mählmann. How can I help you (V)?*	4.00	*Appropriate because…* Hierarchy Politeness Respect (to respect student as an adult "Sie" is required) Social distance (it respects the student-professor boundary)

E	Hallo, Janina. Wie kann ich Ihnen helfen? *Hello (informal), Janina. How can I help you (V)?*	3.29	*Appropriate because…* Attitude (signals certain distance but also certain joviality) Social distance (signals certain distance but also certain joviality) *Inappropriate because…* Attitude (seems very Anglo/ American) Familiarity (it signals that they have known each other for a while)
F	Hallo, Janina. Wie kann ich dir helfen? *Hello (informal), Ms. Mählmann. How can I help you (T)?*	1.50	*Inappropriate because…* Respect (disrespectful) Unfamiliarity (because they don't know each other personally, are not friends)

Response Options for Test Task 3.3		**Mean NS Rating**	**Relevant Factors**
A	*Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider und ich habe einen Termin fűr ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Können Sie mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss?* Hello (formal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (V) help me and tell me where I need to go?	4.00	*Appropriate because…* Setting (job interview; professional setting) Social distance Unfamiliarity ("Guten Tag" because they have never met before; they have no close working relationship
B	*Hallo. Ich bin die Monika und habe einen Termin fűr ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Kannst du mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss?* Hello (informal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (T) help me and tell me where I need to go?	1.00	*Inappropriate because…* Informality (too casual) Naturalness (sounds a bit ineloquent) Respect (shows disrespect toward receptionist who is an adult in an official working environment) Unfamiliarity (because they don't know each other, are strangers)

C	*Hallo. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider und ich habe einen Termin fűr ein Bewerbungsgespräch. Können Sie mir helfen und mir sagen, wo ich hin muss?* Hello (informal). My name is Monika Schneider and I have an appointment for an interview. Could you (V) help me and tell me where I need to go?	3.79	*Appropriate because…* Setting (professional setting) Unfamiliarity
D	Guten Tag, Frau Schneider. Bei wem haben Sie denn Ihren Termin? *Hello (formal), Ms. Schneider. Who do you (V) have the appointment with?*	4.00	*Appropriate because…* Age (age of interlocutors requires "Sie") Politeness (a receptionist needs to be polite) Setting (formal address required as the receptionist represent the institution; job interview) Unfamiliarity ("Guten Tag" more appropriate than "Hallo" because they have never met before; "Sie" appropriate because they don't know each other)
E	Hallo, Monika. Bei wem hast du denn deinen Termin? *Hello (informal), Monika. Who do you (T) have the appointment with?*	1.00	*Inappropriate because…* Informality (too informal) Network (no close work relationship between the two) Respect (suggests talking to a child) Unfamiliarity (adds a level of unacceptable familiarity)
F	Hallo, Frau Schneider. Bei wem haben Sie denn Ihren Termin? *Hello (informal), Ms. Schneider. Who do you (V) have the appointment with?*	3.82	*Appropriate because…* Age (age of interlocutors requires "Sie"; "Hallo" instead of "Guten Tag" okay because both are rather young) Equality ("Hallo" okay because they are no hierarchical differences between the two) Respectful Unfamiliarity (Sie" because they don't know each other)

Response Options for Test Task 3.4		Mean NS Rating	Relevant Factors
A	Hallo! Hi, ich bin die Monika. Ich bin neu hier. *Hello (informal)! Hi, I am Monika. I am new here.*	2.29	*Appropriate because…* Age Network practice Personality *Inappropriate because…* Informality (too informal) Network practice (because she does not know work culture yet) Politeness (low level of politeness)
B	Hallo! Ich bin Monika Schneider und bin neu hier. *Hello (informal). I am Monika Schneider and I am new here.*	4.00	*Appropriate because…* Age (they are both still young) Formality (right level of formality) Group membership Network
C	Guten Tag. Mein Name ist Monika Schneider. Ich bin neu hier. *Hello (formal). My name is Monika Schneider. I am new here.*	3.71	*Appropriate because…* Hierarchy (Monika is higher ranked) Network practice Politeness (most polite) Respect Unfamiliarity
D	Hallo Monika, ich bin Claudia. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass du heute hier anfängst. *Hello (informal) Monika, I am Claudia. Great! I have already heard that you (T)are starting today.*	2.64	*Appropriate because…* Attitude (friendly tone) Group membership Setting *Inappropriate because…* Informality (too informal) Unfamiliarity (don't know each other; therefore "du" not okay)
E	Hallo, ich bin Claudia Wickert. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass Sie heute hier anfangen. *Hello (informal), I am Claudia Wickert! Great! I have already heard that you (V) are starting today.*	3.93	*Appropriate because…* Age (ok since same age) Attitude (polite but friendly/ warm; makes the new instructor feel welcome) Formality (right level) Network practice (ok if this is the company culture)

F	Guten Tag, Frau Schneider. Mein Name ist Claudia Wickert. Schön! Ja, ich habe schon gehört, dass Sie heute hier anfangen. *Hello (formal), Ms. Schneider. My name is Claudia Wickert. Great! I have already heard that you (V) are starting today.*	3.82	*Appropriate because…* Communicative intent (use of formal address form in order to maintain social distance; express seniority) Network practice (ok if this is the company culture) *Inappropriate because…* Formality (bit too formal)

REFERENCES

Auger, J. (2003). Linguistic norms vs. functional competence: Introducing Québec French to American students. In C. Blyth (Ed.), *The sociolinguistics of foreign-language classrooms. AAUSC issues in language program direction* (pp. 79-104). Boston: Heinle.

Bachman, L. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L., & Palmer, A. (1996). *Language testing in practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Barbour, S. (2004). Standardvariation im Deutschen und Englischen: Auswirkungen auf die Kommunikation zwischen Sprechern beider Sprachen. In L. M. Eichinger & W. Kallmeyer (Eds.), *Standardvariation: Wie viel Variation verträgt die deutsche Sprache?* (pp. 324-334). Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter

Barbour, S., & Stevenson, P. (1990). *Variation in German. A critical approach to German sociolinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics in language teaching. Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (vol. 7, pp. 21-39). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Gass, S. M. (2002). Introduction. In S. Gass, K. Bardovi-Harlig, S. Sieloff Magnan, & J. Walz (Eds.), *Pedagogical norms for second and foreign language learning and teaching* (pp. 1-15). Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1991). Saying "no" in English: Native and nonnative rejections. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning.* (vol. 2, pp. 41-57). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). *Teaching pragmatics*. Washington DC: U.S. Department of State. Office of English Language Programs.

Barraja-Rohan, A.M. (2000). Teaching conversation and sociocultural norms with conversation analysis. In A. J. Liddicoat & C. Crozet (Eds.), *Teaching languages, teaching cultures* (pp. 65-77). Melbourne: Applied Linguistics Association of Australia.

Becker, T. E., & Cote, J. A. (1994). Additive and multiplicative method effects in applied psychological research: An empirical assessment of three models. *Journal of Management*, *20*, 625-641.

Belz, J. A., & Kinginger, C. (2002). The cross-linguistic development of address form use in telecollaborative language learning: Two case studies. *Canadian Modern Language Review 59*(2), 189-214.

Biber, D. (1994). *Dimensions of register variation: A cross-linguistic comparison.* Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Biber, D. (1999). A register perspective on grammar and discourse: Variability in the form of English complement clauses. *Discourse Studies 1* (2), 131-150.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (Eds.) (1989). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Norwood: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Blyth, C. (Ed.) (2003). *The sociolinguistics of foreign-language classrooms. AAUSC Issues in Language Program Direction*. Boston: Heinle.

Bouton, L. (1988). A cross-cultural study of the ability to interpret implicatures in English. *World Englishes, 17*, 183-196.

Brown, J. D., & Rodgers T. S. (2002). *Doing second language research*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

Brown, R., & Gilman, A. (1960). The pronouns of power and solidarity. In P. P. Giglioli (Ed.), *Language and society* (pp. 252-282). London: Cox and Wyman Ltd.

Brumfit, C. (Ed.) (1984). *General English syllabus design.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-27) London: Longman.

Canale M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics 1*(1), 1-47.

Celce-Murcia, M. (1995). The elaboration of sociolinguistic competence: Implications for teacher education. In J. E. Alatis, C. Straehle, C. A. Gallenberger, & M. Ronkin (Eds.), *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics: Linguistics and the education of language teachers: Ethnolinguistic,* *psycholinguistics, and sociolinguistic aspects* (pp. 699-710). Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Clyne, M. (1995). *The German language in a changing Europe*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Clyne, M., Kretzenbacher, H.-L., Norrby C., & Schüpbach D. (2006). Perceptions of variation and change in German and Swedish address. *Journal of Sociolinguistics 10*(3), 287-319.

Cohen, A. D. (2004). The interface between interlanguage, pragmatics and assessment. *Proceedings of the 3rd Annual JALT Pan-SIG Conference.* Tokyo Keizai University.

Cohen, A. D., & Ishihara, N. (2005). A web-based approach to strategic learning of speech acts. Retrieved 03/15/2010 from http://carla.acad.umn.edu/speechacts/Speech_Act_Project.pdf

Crystal, D. (1997). (Ed.). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language* (2nd ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

DeKeyser, R. M. (1995). Learning second language grammar rules: An experiment with a miniature linguistic system. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 19,* 379-410.

DeKeyser, R. M. (2003). Implicit and explicit learning. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 313-348). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

DeLisle, H. H. (1986). Intimiacy, solidarity, and distance: The pronouns of address in German. *Die Unterrichtspraxis*, *19*(1), 4-15.

Dippman, G., & Watzinger-Tharp, J. (2000). *A practical review of German grammar* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Doughty, C. J. (2003). Instructed SLA: Constraints, compensation, and enhancement. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 256-310). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Downes, W. (1998). *Language and society.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Duranti, A. (1997). Universal and culture-specific properties of greetings. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology 7(*1), 63-97.

Eisenstein Ebsworth, M.E., Bodman, J.W., & Carpenter, M. (1996). Cross-cultural realization of greetings in American English. In S.M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: Challenges to communication in a second language* (pp. 89-107). Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyer.

Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition.* London: Oxford University Press.

Erickson, F. (1996). Ethnographic microanalysis. In S. Lee McKay & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language teaching* (pp. 238-306). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Færch, C., & Kasper, G. (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realization. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics* (pp. 221-247). Norwood, N. J.: Ablex.

Farenkia, B. (2002). Grußhandlungen im Kulturvergleich. *Grazer Linguistische Studien 57* (spring), 71-88.

Gass, S. (1997). *Input, interaction and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Gass, S. (2003). Input and interaction. In C. J. Doughty & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Gass, S., Bardovi-Harlig, K., Magnan, S. S., & Walz, J. (Eds.) (2002). *Pedagogical norms for second and foreign language learning and teaching: Studies in honour of Albert Valdman*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Gass, S., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Harley, B., Allen P., Cummins, J., & Swain, M. (Eds.) (1990). *The development of second language proficiency.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hinkel, E., & Sandra F. (Eds.) (2002). *New perspectives on grammar teaching in second language classrooms.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

House, J., & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In W. Lörscher & R. Schulze (Eds.), *Perspectives on language in performance. Festschrift for Werner Hüllen* (pp. 1250-1288). Tübingen: Narr.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Ishihara, N. (2007). Web-based curriculum for pragmatics instruction in Japanese as a foreign language: An explicit awareness-raising approach. *Language Awareness, 16*(1), 21-40.

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Pragmatics in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*, 145-148.

Kasper, G. (1997a). *Can pragmatic competence be taught?* Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center. Retrieved 03/15/2010 from http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06/

Kasper, G. (1997b). The role of pragmatics in language teacher education. In K. Bardovi-Harlig & B. S. Hartford (Eds.), *Beyond methods: Components of language teacher education* (pp. 113-136). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 502-530.

Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). *Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics*. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

Kasper, G., & Roever, C. (2005). Pragmatics in second language learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 317-334). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics 19*, 81-104.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language.* Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Komes, R. (1987). Grussformeln und die Regeln ihrer Anwendung. *Beiträge zur Dialektologie am Mittelrhein, 70*, 256-284.

Kramsch, C. (2002). Standard, norm, and variability in language learning: A view from foreign language research. In S. Gass, K. Bardovi-Harlig, S. Sieloff Magnan, & J. Walz J. (Eds.), *Pedagogical norms for second and foreign language learning and teaching* (pp. 59-79). Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Kretzenbacher, H. L., Clyne, M., & Schupbach, D. (2006). Pronominal address in German: Rules, anarchy and embarrassment potential. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *29*, 1-17

Lee, J. S., & McChesney, B. (2000). Discourse rating tasks: A teaching tool for developing sociocultural competence. *ELT Journal 54*(2), 161-168.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics.* London: Longman.

Lemmerich, E. (2004). Developing sociolinguistic competence in a foreign language: Forms of address in German. *Working Papers in Linguistics*. Salt Lake City: University of Utah Press.

Lemmerich, E. (2005). Developing sociolinguistic competence in a foreign language. Paper presented at Second Language Research Forum, New York.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Crozet, C. (2001). Acquiring French interactional norms through instruction. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 125-144). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

LoCastro, V. (2003). *An introduction to pragmatics: Social action for language teachers.* Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). New York: Academic Press.

Long, M. H., & Robinson, P. (1998). Focus on form: Theory, research, and practice. In C. Doughty & J. Williams (Eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytical teaching on aspects of French immersion students' sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics, 15,* 263-287.

McCarthy, N., & Carter, R. (1995). Spoken grammar: What is it and how can we teach it? *ELT Journal, 49*(3), 207-218.

McKay, S. L., & Hornberger N. H. (2001). *Sociolinguistics and language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Miodek, W. (1994). *Die Begrüßungs- und Abschiedsformeln im Deutschen und im Polnischen*. Heidelberg: J. Groos.

Miodek, W. (1995). Didaktische Implikationen des sprachlichen Gruβverhaltens für den Deutschunterricht in Polen. *Glottodidactica XXIII*, 29-40.

Mir, M. (1995). The perception of social context in request performance. In L. Bouton & Y. Kachru (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning monograph series* (vol. 6, pp. 137-153). Washington, DC: TESOL.

Mougon, R., & Dewaele, J. (2004). Preface. *The International Review of Applied Linguistics 42*, 295-301.

Mühleisen, S. (2006). *Politeness and face in Caribbean Creoles.* Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Norris, J.M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50* (3), 417-528.

Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. (1991). The learning of complex speech act behavior. *TESL Canada Journal, 7,* 45-65.

Parkinson, D. B. (1985). *Constructing the social context of communication: Terms of address in Egyptian Arabic.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Paulston, C. B., & Tucker, G. R. (Eds.) (2003). *Sociolinguistics: The essential readings.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Ranalli, M. (2001). *Consciousness-raising versus deductive approaches to language instruction: A study of learner preferences*. Center for English Language Studies, University of Birmingham.

Rose, K. (2001). Compliments and compliment responses in film: Implications for pragmatics research and language teaching. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 39,* 309-27.

Rose, K., & Kasper, G. (Eds.) (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Rose, K., & Ng Kwai-fun, C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 145-170). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Riggio, R. E. (1981). Nonverbal greetings: Effects of the situation and personality. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 7*(4), 682-689.

Sacia, L. (2009). *Translating 'you': An examination of German and Portuguese address systems and their descriptions in foreign language reference materials.* Stuttgart: Ibidem Verlag.

Sacks H. (1999). Everyone has to lie. In A. Jaworski & N. Coupland (Eds.), *The discourse reader* (pp. 252-262). London, New York: Routledge.

Schilling-Estes, N. (2002). Investigating stylistic variation. In J. K Chambers, P. Trudgill,

& N. Schilling-Estes (Eds.), *The handbook of language variation and change* (pp. 375-401). Malden, Mass.: Blackwell

Schmidt, R. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 210-42). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case of an adult learner of Portuguese. In R. Day (Ed.), *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition* (pp. 237-326). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Spada, N. (1997). Form-focused instruction and second language acquisition: A review of classroom and laboratory research. *Language Teaching, 29,* 1-15.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 125-144). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Swann, J., Deumert, A., Mesthrie, R., & Lillis, T. (2004). *A dictionary of sociolinguistics.* Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Tayetama, Y., Kasper, G., Mui, L., Tay, H., & Thananart, O. (1997). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatics routines. In L. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and Language Learning* (vol. 8, pp. 163-178). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4,* 91-112.

Tomlin, R. (1990). Functionalism in second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12,* 155-177.

Trenholm, S., & Jensen, A. (1988). *Interpersonal Communication:* Belmont, Calif: Wadsworth Pub. Co.

Trosborg, A. (1998). The teaching of pragmatic functions in a foreign language. In D. Albrechtsen, B. Henriken, I.M. Mess, & E. Poulsen (Eds.), *Perspectives on foreign and second language pedagogy* (pp. 239-252). Odense: Odense University Press.

Valdman, A. (1989). The elaboration of pedagogical norms. In S. Gass, C. Madden, D.

Preston & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Variation in second language acquisition: Discourse and pragmatics* (pp. 15-34). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Valdman, A. (1992). Authenticity, variation and communication in the foreign language classroom. In C. Kramsch & S. McConnell-Ginet (Eds.), *Text and context: Cross-disciplinary perspectives on language study* (pp. 79-97). Lexington MA: D.C. Heath.

Valdman, A. (2003). The acquisition of sociostylistic and sociopragmatic variation by instructed second language learners: The elaboration of pedagogical norms. In C. Blyth (Ed.), *The sociolinguistics of foreign-language classrooms. AAUSC issues in language program direction* (pp. 57-78). Boston: Heinle.

Wardhaugh, R. (1992). *An introduction to sociolinguistics.* Oxford: Blackwell.

Watzinger-Tharp, J. (2006). German weil-clauses: Current research and its implications for the L2 classroom. *Unterrichtspraxis 39* (1/2), 46-54.

Wildner-Bassett, M. (1994). Intercultural pragmatics and proficiency: ‘Polite’ noises for cultural appropriateness. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, *32*, 3-17.

Winchatz M. R. (2001). Social meanings in German interactions: An ethnographic analysis of the second-person pronoun ‘Sie’. *Research on Language and Social Interaction*, *34* (3), 337-369.

Yasuhiro, F. (2007). A Web-based survey on British pragmatics acceptability of Japanese refusals in English: From cross-cultural to intercultural. *Intercultural Communication Studies XVI* (1), 137-152.

Zifonun, G., Hoffmann, L., & Strecker, B. (1997) *Grammatik der deutschen Sprache.* Berlin, New York: Walter de Gruyter.